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ABSTRACT

The increase in types and numbers of training programs for paraprofessional mental health workers may result in the development of consortium arrangements among training programs at all levels. The topics presented in this document deal with areas of common interest to those involved in such programs. They are: (1) new directions for community college mental health worker programs including peer counseling; (2) behavior modification and the paraprofessional in human service occupations; (3) requirements and techniques for helping people; (4) research skills for mental health workers; (5) poverty research and the poverty community; (6) inquiry as research; and (7) discontinuities in occupational mobility in the mental health related professions. (RN)

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COMMUNITY COLLEGE MENTAL HEALTH WORKER PROGRAM

NEW DIRECTIONS

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INTRODUCTION

The service delivery systems of the 1960s were characterized by new careerists, comprehensive community mental health centers, rejection of traditional treatment modalities, decimation of the large institutions and role blurring and confusion among the established mental health professionals.

Paraprofessional training programs multiplied to provide jobs for the poor and alleviate the much publicized manpower crises. Trainees have been recruited from various groups, middle-aged housewives, recent high school graduates, the poor, the workers already in the mental health field whose skills might be upgraded.

While the students were recruited from various populations the philosophies of training programs were basically of two types, which now exist. The first is the continuation of the social service technician training which has existed in most welfare departments. The other philosophy is one which has been an attempt to deal with a rapidly changing treatment scene. The phasing and/or reorientation of the large institution and the development of the comprehensive community mental health center created the need for a different kind of worker than had been performing under the general title of psychiatric technician. This psychiatric technician we might consider to have been a mental health worker as a specialist. The steady progression of training systems has slowly evolved towards the development of the mental health worker generalist easily adaptable to many systems. This new professional is rapidly coming into a place of his own. While there are many titles which have been used to characterize this new professional, most have been developed to demean or deny the worker the role he is rapidly developing with his skills.

If we look then to training models which might be developed with these two orientations it is readily apparent that one model would favor the more traditional medical model approach which has characterized the large psychiatric institution. The other model would be more inclined to be developed out of a social service model with a tendency towards community organizing. From these two models I have noticed a general development towards a generic form of training. This development has gained momentum from various factors. The community college because of its flexibility and occupational emphasis has developed associate degree programs in areas which were either neglected or thought to take extensive specialized training. Associate degrees are being awarded in the areas of corrections, early childhood education, recreation instructional aides, etc. Because of limited resources and the responsive attitude of the community colleges there has been the move toward the development of a generic service worker. The expense of duplication necessitated the identification of overlap and development of core course material to conserve resources and achieve uniformity for occupational mobility.

There are two basic attitudes in the training of the human service worker. The first is the core and cluster approach which features a core of courses which would be taken by all persons enrolled in human service programs. The cluster, denotes the constellations, which provide for specializations out of the core curriculum. These specializations would be the many areas already mentioned. The second attitude is one which features an omnibus training which makes the assumption that the cores of the specializations are more simiiliar than is usually assumed and specialization stems from experiential or agency familiarization. It cannot be assumed at this point that either is the perfect model.

Options for graduates for these programs include a variety of job opportunities or continuation education. The realities of the employment picture have produced the need for a continuing education program. One aspect of this continuing education program has to deal with the inability of the highly stratified treatment systems to accept the new professional. Continuing education in this case would involve the education of traditional disciplines in their role with the new professionals. Continuing education would also be the main source of education and information for those new professionals who choose not to go on for a bachelors degree. The community college is the logical vechicle to provide this kind of continuing education to the new careerist, psychiatric technician, associate degree worker and in many cases the traditional professional. Continuing education areas might be behavior modification techniques, research-social action, peer counseling, social planning skills, grantsmanship, etc.

The associate degree graduate as a transfer student is presenting many interesting and unique possibilities. Some programs have tended to ignore the needs of the transfer student and consequently have created situations where the AA graduate must virtually repeat content and skills already acquired. Other programs have established a dual track where a student may opt to take a program which can either be terminal or transfer. Most programs however, do build transferability into their training programs. Because of the direct service involved at the associate degree level most students transferring want to continue their service activity in their baccalaureate education. The opportunities for practioner-oriented training programs are few at the baccalaureate level. The principal and most widespread trainee programs of this nature at the BA level are the social work programs. While articulation at all levels of training has presented many challenges and questions and few accomplishments or answers it appears that there are some developments which give promise. Articulation arrangements are being developed in the states of California, Montana, New Mexico, and Oregon in the WICHE region. There is the tendency toward the crossing of state borders to develop a regional approach to training. A very real possibility and solution is to push the development of consortium arrangements between training programs with all levels represented.

With this trend toward cooperation it is hoped that materials such as these will provide initial support for areas of common interest.

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NEW DIRECTIONS FOR COMMUNITY COLLEGE MENTAL HEALTH WORKER PROGRAMS: PEER COUNSELING

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Presented to a WICHE meeting
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INTRODUCTION AND STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

The topic, Peer Counseling, is one which is appearing increasingly in practice on college campuses and other settings and in written form in the professional literature. In January 1972 Magoon (1972) published results of a survey concerning activities of counselors in university counseling centers. Of the 210 directors who responded, 34 indicated that a peer counseling program was in operation on their campuses. At the American Personnel and Guidance Association Convention held March 1972, nine convention sessions were held with counselors reporting on peer counseling programs in their schools and agencies. Despite the increase in practice and reporting of peer counseling, the issue seems to be a controversial one.

A variety of definitions of counseling can be found in dictionaries and textbooks. A definition of counseling and comments about counseling in general seem appropriate prior to the discussion of peer counseling. An adaptation of a definition by Blocher (1966) seems appropriate to the context of this paper. "Counseling is an interaction process which facilitates meaningful understanding of self and environment, results in establishment and/or clarification of goals and values in future behavior." (1966,P.5). Usually, counseling connotes a relationship in which the counseling is performed by a trained professional. In peer counseling, one individual is counseled by someone like himself and usually the counselor does not have professional training. Hopefully, as a result of either type of counseling relationship, a change in behavior will occur.

Depending upon the counseling theorist, certain characteristics of the counseling relationship are reported to be important to a facilitative relationship. Those reported by Carkhuff (1967) in his Beyond Counseling and Psychotherapy are suggested by this writer as worthy of consideration when peer counseling is considered. He has studied, in depth, the effectiveness of peer and professional counselors and has presented his information in several books and numerous articles. During the years of 1967-60, he, alone or in conjunction with another author, has written five books about counseling, two specifically about nonprofessional counseling. He has studied the effects of counseling and necessary conditions which must be present in a counseling relationship. He believes that empathic understanding, respect or positive regard for each other, genuineness, concreteness and self-exploration are all necessary ingredients in the counseling relationship.

Usually, when we think of counselors, we envision professionals who have had training. Those in the helping professions usually include social workers, psychiatrists, psychologists and counselors. These professionals have baccalaureate and graduate school preparation and training. They have, as their ultimate goal, assisting individuals, through a helping relationship, with prevention and solution of problems. Social workers, who attend graduate schools in social work, are usually concerned with individuals in relationship to society and environment. Psychiatrists possess an M.D. degree and their training requires four years post-college education, one year of hospital internship and two years of residency in a setting concerned with diagnosis and treatment of mental disorders. Psychologists usually have a Master's degree or doctorate and work in a variety of settings (mental health institutions, mental health clinics, rehabilitation centers, prisons, or schools.) Counselors, who are usually employed in schools, rehabilitation centers and employment institutions, usually possess a Master's degree.

In addition to counseling that is being performed by professional counselors, counseling is performed by individuals other than those who have had professional training. At least three reasons exist for utilizing nonprofessionals instead of professionals. First, one of the oft-quoted reasons for using non-professionals is that there simply are not enough professional counselors to provide help which is needed by individuals in our society. In the last ten years, articles concerning the manpower shortage have appeared in the American Psychologist and other journals. The projections are that a great number of psychologists and psychiatrists, approximately 15,000 social workers, and 75,000 counselors will additionally be needed during the 1965-75 decade. Thus, even though a large number of individuals are employed in the helping professions, a great need for additional professionals in these four fields will exist. Second, the increasing demand for higher standards and longer training periods in counselor education has been a factor in introducing the subprofessional to counseling. Third, in the realm of higher education and its financial problems, the thought is that the individual counseling by professionals is a luxury and that, in the future, counselors will be used as consultants and paraprofessional will increasingly be employed as counselors.

The question to which this paper is addressed is whether or not peer counselors are effective and, consequently, whether or not they should be utilized. A review of pertinent literature and a selected summary of peer counseling programs are included in this paper. Finally, personal opinions of this writer regarding peer counseling conclude this paper.

NON-PROFESSIONAL COUNSELING

There is an ever-increasing body of literature which suggests that lay, nonprofessional or peer counselors are very effective in working with individuals in need of help. Counseling is performed by individuals other than those who possess the minimal Master's degree. Settings in which these lay or non-professional counselors might work include the following: prisons, schools, universities, Alcoholics Anonymous, groups, drug abuse groups, Job Corps centers, mental institutions, low income neighborhoods, community agencies, Veterans' Hospitals and other settings. Numerous studies conclude that lay non-professional counselors are indeed successful and effective in working with others. The thought of training lay persons, including teachers, was in the mind of Sigmund Freud (1950). He wanted to train influential non-professionals to practice his methods. In 1964, and the advent of Project CAUSE (Counselor Advisor University Summer Education), the preparation of subprofessionals brought concern and controversy about the use and qualifications of nonprofessionals. Some felt that too little was known about the role and effect of subprofessionals. Others felt that the lay helper was a threat to their jobs. The controversy led to a policy statement by the American Personnel and Guidance Association through a subcommittee on support personnel. (1967) The statement provides guidelines regarding job descriptions and roles of the support personnel. They are to be involved, both directly and indirectly, in counseling and, if used appropriately, could extend the effectiveness of the helping profession.

Because the Department of Labor and its Project CAUSE introduced the use of subprofessionals, some brief comments about the program seem appropriate. Nineteen hundred individuals were recruited and attended an intensive 8-to-10 week summer training program, conducted by 27 universities, which was designed to prepare them for Youth Opportunity Center work. Gordon (1965) charged that professional counselors were unprepared to counsel unemployed youth because most counselors and psychologists were middle class and their techniques were most appropriate to middle class students. He also said that university training programs produced theoreticians and researchers, rather than those who could help unemployed youth, and the counseling model of client-counselor intimacy might not be appropriate to lower class youth. Gordon believed the answer was to create subprofessionals and offer training to them via Project CAUSE. Following the printing of the article by Gordon, critical and supportive reactions to CAUSE and subprofessional counseling appeared. Also, numerous programs using the subprofessional were established and many individuals served in a nonprofessional but helping role.

Following the CUASE Summer Teaching Program, Dailey, Carlson and McChesney (1968) evaluated the CAUSE Program and 206 counselors, 100 of whom were CAUSE-trained, employed in Youth Opportunity Centers. Some of their findings pertinent to this paper were:

1. The turnover of CAUSE trainees was high. They were more likely to leave the agency and less likely to become supervisors than were other employees.
2. CAUSE counselors received higher ratings from peers but lower ratings from supervisors than other employees.

3. Tests used to select CAUSE trainees did not discriminate good counselors from poor counselors.

Even though the CUASE program was legitimately criticized, some positive results might be attributed to the program which is perceived to be the first large scale nonprofessional counselor training program.

Welfare recipients were hired as case workers in the Community Action Program in South Bend, Indiana. Indigenous Appalachians were paid $5.00 per hour to help their peers. Some universities are offering training prgorams for high school dropouts to become inner city aides to teachers. According to Stranges and Riccio (1970), a trend of utilizing individuals to help others like themselves is apparent in our nation.

The support personnel concept is employed in public schools in Auburn, Maine. Adult volunteers work with elementary school children who are identified by their teacher as needing an adult friend. Volunteers and children discuss mutual interests, read and tape-record stories, play games, do school assignments, and do arts and crafts. The relationship, regardless of the activity, is stressed as the important aspect.

In 1969, according to Muro (1970), approximatel 72 volunteers worked 1244 hours with children. Teachers and principals reported that the majority of the children improved in grades, personal appearance, attitude and behavior. Likewise, Muro suggested the possibility that the volunteers might have been helped via the relationship, also.

In a mental hospital setting, lay hospital personnel, mostly attendants, were trained to help chronically ill patients in personal growth. According to Carkhuff and Truax (1965), eighty hospitalized mental patients, most of whom were older, had chronic problems, and had been hospitalized for over ten years, were selected as the sample. The patients were seen twice a week in group therapy for a total of 24 sessions. Eighty patients were seen in counseling and a matched control group of 70 patients were observed. Of the counseled patients, six dropped out of the program and 11 were discharged after two or three months of therapeutic treatment. Of the control group, six patients were discharged within a three month period of time. When the two groups were compared, significant differences were found and significant improvement was evident in ward behavior of the treatment group in areas of lesser psychological disturbance, more constructive concern for self and others, and degree of overall improvement on the ward in three months. These results indicate that trained lay hospital personnel can effect constructive changes with severely disturbed, institutionalized patients.

Recent research has shown very clearly that nonprofessionals can do psychotherapy and do it well. New Dimensions of Client Centered Therapy, by Hart and Tomlinson, contains reports of nonprofessionals working successfully in a variety of settings. "Non" is not synonymous with "un"; nonprofessionals are neither unsuccessful nor unskilled. Extensive evidence suggests that lay individuals can be trained to function in a facilitative way and effect constructive client change over a relatively short period of time. These trained volunteers from school, hospital and community settings have effected constructive change in clients. Because the focus of this paper is peer counseling, this writer does not intend to elaborate further upon lay counseling.

EFFECTIVENESS OF ALY AND PROFESSIONAL COUNSELORS

In this section, studies will be reported which compare effectiveness of nonprofessional and professional counselors. In these studies, both were participants in the same research project.

A survey was made by Carkhuff (1966) who reviewed programs of lay counselor training and assessed effectiveness of professionals and trainees with clients. He concluded that "the lay trainees demonstrate counseling outcomes at least as constructive as their training supervisors or professional practitioners in general."

Zunker and Brown (1966) compared the effects of professional and trained student counselors upon college freshmen. The student counselors "achieved significantly better results than did the professional counselors on a majority of variables used to evaluate the counseling outcome" and "received better acceptance than did the professional counselors." In addition, the student-counseled freshmen received equal or superior grades to those counseled by professionals.

The National Institute of Mental Health sponsored a special two year training program for eight mature women who had raised families of their own. Magoon and Golann (1966) found that these women, trained as therapists, performed successfully in a variety of settings. They are providing creditable counseling and psychotherapy. In addition, in comparison with new therapists of a variety of disciplines, the women received ratings by superiors as average or above.

In a residential rehabilitation center, four experienced Master's level people and four untrained aides who had applied for a secretarial job were the counselors studied by Truax and Lister (1970). The purpose of the study was to determine the effectiveness of counselors working alone, aides working alone under supervision, and counselors assisted by aides with high (60) and low (30) caseloads.

The size of caseload had no effects on the results of this study; the contrast occurred in who did the counseling. The best results were obtained by counselor aides working alone but with supervision; next were professional counselors alone; and last was the counselor and aide combination. The results of this study do indicate that lay counselors can be effective.

Poser (1966) compared seven psychiatrists, six psychiatric social workers, two occupational therapists, with eleven untrained, undergraduate women on the level of performance of chronic schizophrenics. They each conducted group therapy with the patients, one hour per day, five days per week, for five months. The lay therapists were superior to the professional therapists and no therapists on the basis of measured changes and performance tests. Even though the study had been criticized, the patients were helped to some degree by nonprofessionals.

At times, as in the Poser study, control groups which received "no treatment" change positively. Bergen (1963) stated that:

> "individuals not selected for treatment groups frequently seek help elsewhere. They turn, usually, to people outside of the professional counseling field. The fact that controls change in a positive way as significant as persons in treatment groups with professionals might indicate that the specialized training of the professionals may not be the reason that the clients improve. Instead, some quality which is found in both professionals and nonprofessionals might be responsible for the change."

Bergen concludes that counselors who "produce positive results are those with certain personal qualities and ways of responding to others, rather than a well-trained armamentarium of techniques." (Bergen, 1963, p.248)

An attempt has been made to demonstrate that nonprofessional counselors can be effective in a counseling relationship. In addition, with training, they can equal or surpass the professional.

PEER COUNSELING

A challenging idea is quoted from Carkhuff:

> "If we were to properly control research on the practice of medicine and found that, all other things being equal, patients who were treated by minimally-trained, nonprofessional 'friends' were more likely or even as likely to recover or be be 'cured' than the patients of physicians, we would be horrified and would call for extensive reform in professional medical practice. A careful review of carefully controlled studies of the outcomes of our traditional training programs indicates that state of

affairs in our counseling and therapeutic practices." (Berenson and Carkhuff, 1967, p.423) With Carkhuff's idea serving as an introduction to this section of this paper, a survey of the pertinent peer counseling literature will be presented.

A survey conducted by Brown and Zunker (1966) indicated that programs of student personnel are utilizing upperclassmen in increasing numbers in orientation of freshmen. The majority of the 118 respondents to the questionnaire regarding use of students as counselors in university settings responded favorably to using students as counselors. Respondents stressed students' value in resident hall counseling as big brothers and big sisters and the availability and proximity of students as positive factors.

The authors, Brown and Zunker, compared their results with Hardee (1959) who conducted a similar study previously. Hardee indicated that 70% rated student counselors as good or excellent and 30% rated them as fair or poor. Brown and Zunker (1966) found that 84% of respondents rated student counselors effective and positive while only 16% rated them negatively. Thus, on the basis of these two studies conducted within a span of four years, directors of college counseling centers increased their favorable and decreased their unfavorable reactions about the effectiveness of student or peer counselors. There seems to be an attitudinal change toward acceptance of counseling by students on the part of counseling center directors.

In operation is a program at Justin Morrill College, an experimental residential liberal education college at the Michigan State University, where upperclass students advise freshmen academically. The "academic assistant" is paid $15.00 for 10 hours of work per week and is assigned 30 freshman students. All freshmen have academic assistants as advisers except two or three who exercise the option of having faculty advisers. Upcraft (1971) reported that the freshmen students responded that their advisers were available when needed, they had good interpersonal relationships with their advisers, they were referral agents, helped with career planning and understanding of the college, and assisted with improvement of academic standing. The faculty members indicated that the student advisers were effective and that the program was a successful one.

According to Upcraft, students indicated that they sought help from the following individuals:

Other students	91.7 per cent
Parents	75.8 " "
Academic Assistant	75.3 " "

Resident Hall Assistants	71.7 per cent
Faculty	63.3 " "
Counseling Services	19.1 " "
Student Relations Office	16.7 " "
Religious Advisers	6.7 " "

In view of the topic of this paper, noteworthy is the fact that students consulted with students and parents a greater per cent of the time than they did professionals.

A survey was conducted at University of Florida by Lynch (1970) to determine if volunteer sophomore girls could serve successfully as advisers to freshmen women. The sophomores assisted freshmen in standard activities, in social, academic, and personal adjustments and strengthened personal leadership attitudes. The rating of the 676 women showed an overwhelming satisfaction of students toward their advisers and the help received from them. Peers did influence students toward better adjustment.

In another study concerning student counselors in the academic light, college students in an advising role were investigated. Brown (1965) matched 216 students who were to be counseled with 216 who would serve as a control group on the basis of high school G.P.A., high school size, scholastic ability, and study orientation. Six upperclassmen, trained by counseling center staff, worked with the students. On a test-retest differential, the counseled freshmen scored significantly higher on study behavior tests and earned grades during the first semester one half letter grade higher than non-counseled freshmen. Brown concluded:

> "Simply stated, college freshmen are more willing to accept peer-delivered guidance because they perceive their peers to be more capable of giving more realistic advice. The guidance offered by student counselors 'speaks the same language and shares the same problems.'" (Brown, 1965, p.817.)

Students have been utilized on college campuses as counselors in dormitories for many years. Other than friend-to-friend counseling, this probably is the most typical way in which peer counseling is evident on college campuses. The Resident Assistant (R.A.) has many roles; however, the counseling aspect seems to be increasingly becoming the important one. Undergraduate resident assistants and graduate psychology majors led group discussions in residence halls on the University of Rochester campus. A before and after the group comparison was made on several variables by Wolff (1969). The groups led by graduate students were slightly more successful than those led by R.A.'s. However, R.A.'s can be successful in conducting groups and discussions which bring about personal growth of the dorm resident, also.

The results of the study indicated that group experiences can favorably affect the interpersonal relationships of freshmen. The participants were seen more favorably by both group members and dormitory residents in general.

Recently appearing on college campuses is the telephone crisis center or hotline service manned by students. The programs, similar in purpose, have a variety of names. Often, crises come to the attention of a person other than the professional first. Several articles regarding the student operated crisis center will be reported.

At the American University a multiple emergency service is financed and operated by the student government body. (McCarthy and Berman, 1971.) The service is directed by a variety of professionals and staffed by member helpers who are screened and trained by two professional counselors. A screening procedure was employed to get stable, capable, motivated students involved with the service. First of all, students answered the telephones and attempted to assist the callers. Then, some of them became a part of the referral service and served as peer counselors. Others served on an emergency crisis intervention team and responded to calls in person. A credit course was available to them before they manned the phones. They were trained to handle crisis problems and to develop personal skills. Back-up professionals were available if they were needed.

As a result of the crisis center, an increase in students who came to the counseling center with crisis problems was evident. Students who worked in the center reported it to be one of the most meaningful educational experiences that they had had in college. Some were provided with an impetus to enter a graduate school and a helping profession.

Help Anonymous was established as a student service at Southern Colorado State College, Pueblo, and was staffed primarily by student volunteers. From November 1, 1968, through May 2, 1969, 380 individuals called and half of them identified a problem area. A listening service, information service and referral service were offered. In addition to people being helped, students who received training were helping others. (Tucker, Megenity and Vigil, 1970).

Some of the telephone hot line or drop-in type programs have as a special emphasis drug counseling or drug information. Two programs of this nature in operation on campuses of the University of Wisconsin follow. Underground Switchboard is the name of the hot line type program offered to drug abusers in the Milwaukee, Wisconsin area. These students, who received approximately 2500 calls per week, were age 18 or over, had some experience with drug users, and were willing to work with people under stress. Schmitz and Michelson (1972) end their article with "As unpaid, volunteer nonprofessionals, the operators have added a significant dimension to the counseling field." (p.362).

In Madison, Wisconsin, a Drug Information Center is operated through the Division of Student Affairs. The Center is staffed by a director, training director, eight peer counselors, a library assistant and a physician consultant. (Hurst, 1971). The Center provided students with drug information through staff members and library materials. Peer counselors who could relate to the students were a part of the program. The peer counselor spread the word of the program, served in a role as a friend, provided information and dispelled myths. The peer counselor needed empathy, commitment to the program, maturity, ample knowledge to know when to refer. The student serving as counselor needed to have drug knowledge, through academic means or as an ex-user; being an ex-addict alone was not ample credentials to be a peer counselor.

Students serve as counselors in settings other than their college campuses. In the next two studies, high school and college students were paid as therapists. Walker, Wolpin and Fellows (1967) utilized high school and college students in a mental institution setting. The college students received course credit and the high school students were paid for their work. The patients received more personal care and emulated the students in a 'big brother' fashion. The students received experience in working with patients and a chance to ascertain their interests in working with people with emotional problems.

In a study by Goodman (1970), the therapists were male college students and the clients were fifth and sixth grade boys referred by parents as having emotional problems. For an academic year, they met two or three times a week for one to five hours. They did things in the community with the "method" of therapy being companionship. The college students were paid $1.50 per hour. The data about the outcome are being analyzed; however, the one thing that is clear is that the boys, college students and parents feel positively about the program.

The focus of this section of the paper has been primarily upon students as peer counselors. Of course, peer counseling is happening in many other segments of the population. In the next section, discussion will be concerned with peer counseling and persons of minority groups.

MINORITY GROUPS AND PEER COUNSELING

Among the many challenges to which professionals must address themselves is how to counsel members of a minority group. Is it necessary for the counselor and client to be from the same culture in order for counseling to be effective or can they be from different backgrounds?

In this section, most of the discussion will concern blacks. Much more has been written about blacks and counseling than Chicanos, Indians, and other minority groups.

An attempt was made by Stranges and Riccio (1970) to determine if counselees would choose counselors of similar or different racial and cultural backgrounds. Counselors and clients were male and female from black, Appalachian white, and Northern white groups. Black clients chose black counselors, white clients preferred white counselors, even though their second choice was black female, and Appalachians chose their representatives. The results of this study indicate strongly that clients desire to be counseled by a counselor like themselves.

Effects of counselor race and training upon black clients were studied by Banks, Berenson and Carkhuff (1977). Eight black clients were seen for one interview by four different counselors. Counselor I was an inexperienced black undergraduate student, Counselor II was a white inexperienced graduate student, Counselor III was a white relatively experienced graduate student, and Counselor IV was an experienced doctoral-level counselor who was trained in a traditional program.

The counselors were rated on empathy, positive regard, genuineness, concreteness, and client depth of self-exploration on the basis of excerpts of recorded sessions. The clients rated the counselor's level of functioning on a 50 item inventory and also were asked to rank the counselors in effectiveness and to indicate whether or not they would return to see the counselor.

Counselors I, II, and III were similar on the objective tape ratings and significantly higher than Counselor IV who was traditionally trained. All of the clients would return to see the black counselor. Five and three would return to see Counselors II and III. None would return to see Counselor IV. Similar results were found in the effectiveness rankings with the black inexperienced counselor being first and the white doctoral-level counselor last. These results would suggest that counselor race and orientation are more important than experience alone and that blacks prefer to be counseled by blacks.

In another attempt to determine the effects of counselor race and social class upon clients, Carkhuff and Pierce (1967) studied the depth of self-exploration of the client. Four lay women counselors who completed a lay mental health training program included: (1) an upper-class white; (2) an upper-class Negro; (3) a lower-class white; (4) a lower-class Negro. All had similar training and were rated similarly on counseling effectiveness. Four groups of four hospitalized women mental patients were the subjects; they also were grouped like the counselors (upper-class white, etc.). Each counselor saw each patient for one 45 minute interview.

Race and social class were significant factors in depth of patient exploration. Patients most similar in race and social class to the counselors tended to explore themselves the most while patients most dissimilar to counselors self-explored least. Other studies by these authors have indicated that a high correlation exists between early interview self-exploration and outcome constructive client change. Thus, these results have implications for counselors.

Impressions about counseling services at a college in Los Angeles of 80 black upper division and graduate students were polled. Most of the students said they would use the services if they were compelled to do so for academic, financial and employment reasons. They indicated they would have trouble conferring with a white counselor. With problems of a personal nature, they preferred a black militant counselor. Because no such counselor was available in the center, they attemped to solve their problems with the aid of friends or parents.

The students indicated that it was important for the counselor to be:

> "(a) of the same race; (b) as black in thinking and feeling as they; (c) not younger in age than they; (d) able to understand and use street language; (e) able to listen and to help find the best solution to the problem; and (f) able to understand social-psychological ussues through training or experiences." (Thomas, 1969, p.73)

Haettenschwiller wrote an informative article regarding counseling black students in the New York State Program (Search for Education, Elevation, and Knowledge). Her point is that blacks are at a disadvantage in understanding how to negotiate the educational system in a college setting.

She (1971) also purported that counselors need to change their counseling approaches when counseling blacks. Counselors need to make the initial contact with the student, preferably in the home of the student. The counselor needs to portray competency and a desire to help in an open, honest, direct way. Rogerian counseling is not advocated. A good relationship, plus necessary training in verbal and facilitative skills, is required. The student needs help with his identity.

She stated that white counselors who are competent can counsel blacks. The counselor needs to be aware of the client's blackness and his whiteness. A practical consideration is that too few black professional counselors exist to meet the demand. It is the opinion of Haettenschwiller that peer counselors could assist the black student and black or white counselor by making the initial contact with the student and giving him the information to negotiate the educational system.

Mitchell (1970) espoused similar views to Haettenschwiller regarding counseling black college students. He stated that counselors need to be open, "gameless", empathic, congruent and acceptant. Even though the white individual may have difficulty as a counselor of blacks, his chances of success are enhanced if he has effective counseling skills, is resourceful, flexible and willing to get out of his office.

In a community college setting, students serve as paraprofessional counselors. Pyle and Synder (1971) found that most freshmen have difficulty adjusting to college and that minority students whose backgrounds and life styles are significantly different from most of the students have acute problems. They purported that, in a problem situation, the student seeks out a "significant other". On the premise that students most readily seek out peers, students were trained to counsel other students.

At the Harrisburg Area Community College, an office was set up where students could contact peer counselors. Minority students said that continuance at college was influenced by support received from peer counselors of the same background. In addition to help during a crisis and being a friend, these peers had information which others could use. When the program was termed a success, peer counselors received tuition scholarships and honorariums.

Paraprofessionals can play a very important role in counseling their peers. Grosser (1968) stated that the nonprofessional has:

> "...mutural interests and common cause with program participants; moreover, he is able to communicate freely because, like them, he ...shares minority group status, common background, and language."

Weber and Palmer (1969) suggested that paraprofessionals:

> "can form an important communication link between the professional and the client from the ghetto because they often speak the language of the street as well as that of the institution." p.27.

These two quotes point out that the nonprofessional is able to serve as a communicator both with the client and as a link between the client and the professional or agency.

Some ideas expressed by Ward (1970) seem pertinent to counseling with minority groups. Minority people feel inferior when they experience the gap between themselves and the professional. This gap is expressed in speech, dress, command of the situation, manner, and general appearance. The Black, Chicano or Indian tends to hold back when talking with a professional. The professional is unfamiliar with the language and games that go on in the street and is more likely to get "shucked."

The peer counselor can identify more quickly the "snow job" and can call attention to it. In addition, the counselor of the minority group knows the unwritten rules of his group and, thus, knows that certain things are not discussable with his clients.

In the introduction to this paper, one of the reasons which was stated for using paraprofessional counselors was that of manpower shortage. This factor is particularly true when the minority peoples are considered. There is a definite shortage of minority counselors to work with minority clients; yet, clients choose counselors most like themselves.

PEER COUNSELING PROGRAMS

A variety of peer counseling programs are in existence on college and university campuses. This writer has written to and has requested information from the 34 counseling center directors and nine A.P.G.A. convention program participants who indicated that peer counseling programs were a part of their campus services. Those who responded will appear in this section. Unfortunately, many programs, which may be very effective, are unavailable for inclusion because no one other than local residents is aware of their existence.

Some peer counseling programs follow:

"Connections", University of California, Santa Cruz, California.

Connections is a student-initiated and operated, 24 hour help center. Emphasized are drug related problems but it is a peer counseling center in general. The Health and Counseling Center work closely with students in providing training and consultation.

Peer Counseling, Phoenix College, Phoenix, Arizona

Ex-drug users are trained in communication skills to work as peer counselors in a self-help program on the campus. The focus of the program is upon crisis intervention, preventative helping relationships, and referral procedures for additional help.

Student Rap Sessions, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania

A video tape of what to expect of the college experience and a small group student rap session with several paid undergraduates as leaders is offered in a Summer Pre-registration Program.

Peer Counseling and Rap Room, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, Louisiana

In addition to "The Phone", a hot line type service, a peer counseling program with an emphasis upon birth control and sexual behavior information is offered through the Office of the Dean of Women. Also, a rap room in the student union building is open to students with graduate students in psychology, social welfare and residents in psychiatry serving as the rap leaders.

Help Line Crisis Intervention Service, Kent State Univeristy, Kent, Ohio

Help Line, a phone service at present, is intended for Kent State students but also is used by the Kent community. Callers in need of followup are referred to an agency or individual. A group of 12 student trainers, who received additional training, are in charge of training others. The service is relatively free of professionals except as a referral source.

Telephone Counseling Service, Florida State University, Tallahassee, Florida

Three major types of services are offered: (1) information about the university or community; (2) crisis intervention counseling by trained paraprofessional volunteers; (3) referral to campus and community agencies. The service is sponsored by the University Counseling Center and is manned by lay and professional volunteers, mostly from the FSU campus.

Peer Advisor Program, Lincoln Land Community College, Springfield, Illinois

In an attempt to keep the disadvantaged student in college once he gets there, the peer adviser program was initiated. Disadvantaged students who have made it through the first year are employed to work as peer counselors. They are trained by the Counseling Center staff in a two week training program during the summer and weekly followup during the academic year.

A Freshman Seminar Program, Project DARE - University College, Wichita State University, Wichita, Kansas

A successful student leader, who serves as a model and group facilitator, and a faculty member meet with a group of 8 to 12 freshman students once a week. The program includes instruction, counseling, advising, planning and discussion. The student leader helps facilitate the group of students so that they become friends. He serves as a model and helps the group to grow personally. The student leader serves as an expert regarding university services, academic requirements and university living. He, in turn, works with and is supervised by a faculty adviser. In this program, the student leaders attend a credit class, called Special Studies and Student Leadership. Following their participation in this class, they serve as leaders for the students enrolled in Freshman Seminar. Two or three student leaders and a faculty adviser work with one seminar of 30 freshman.

Student Curriculum Advising Program, Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho

Incoming freshmen have the choice of selecting faculty or students as advisers. Upper class students serve as academic advisers to freshmen. The student adviser serves in the same capacity as the faculty adviser. Approximately 90 student advisers and several hundred freshmen are involved in the Student Curriculum Advising Program which is in its fourth year of operation.

Peer Sex Education Program, University of Massachusetts, Amhurst, Massachusetts
Students, who learned about birth control and sex information from a health educator, are sharing their knowledge with students in their dormitories. In addition, some of them are enrolled in a credit course and are taught counseling skills, group dynamics, and referral techniques. They have served as discussion leaders on topics of abortion, family planning, and sexual roles.

Career Encounter Groups, University of Pittsburgh, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
University Counseling Center staff had wanted to familiarize students with career ooportunities through student-led encounter groups. Junior students were to learn about group procedures and career information and then work with groups of freshmen. The program failed because of lack of sustained interest.

"Freak Out" Control Center, Parsons College, Fairfield, Iowa
A drug control center was designed to deal with drug-related crises. A married couple and male student staff the cetter. A physician is on call to lend medical assistance. The students have been trained to recognize drug abuse symptoms and to lead group therapy.

High Risk Program, Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho
A new program will be in operation beginning the fall semester 1972-73. Students enroll at the university after being in the State mental hospital, prison, the training school or another structured environment. In order to assist these students, this writer will have some students identified to her via the mentioned agencies, Vocational Rehabilitation Service, Veteran's Administration, and local Mental Health Center. Undergraduate and graduate students will be trained to work with these students as a peer counselor, big brother/sister, adviser or referral agent. Hopefully, with an interested, available peer, adjustment difficulties to the campus problems will be minimized.

Peer Help Center, Carnegie Mellon University, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania
A combination hot line and drop-in counseling program is in operation on this campus, with the students running both sections and receiving support from the Division of Student Affairs. The drop-in center is in a newly furnished room

in a large classroom building. The major emphasis is on the drop-in part of the program for those students who want to talk over matters with a peer. The other aspect is crisis intervention.

Help Counselors, The University of Wisconsin, Green Bay, Wisconsin

Peer counselors serve an outreach function for the counseling center. They work with new clients who are waiting to see a counselor and take referrals from counselors. Peer counselors may serve as academic advisers to freshmen, draft counselors, campus information givers, or program planners to prevent emotional problems from developing. Four peer counselors and five paraprofessionals from the community work in the counseling center per se and anywhere else to help students.

"Third Ear", University of Minnesota, Morris, Minnesota

A variety of services are provided through the student-to-student counseling service. A rap room and informational library are available 24 hours a day. Information and assistance is available in areas of drugs, sex, draft, academic advising. The Third Ear is manned by students and does have support from the counseling center staff.

Everyday People, Inc., University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri

The goal is to provide a community center for "subculture" people. A large, seven-room house on campus is the location for peer and professional counseling, crisis intervention, "dope on dope", including information to students when bad drugs are in the area and sex information.

Training and support are provided by the Testing and Counseling Center. Students provide the direct services but receive help from counselors, clergy, physicians, and other professionals.

One additional function is the sex information unit which goes to dormitories, sororities and fraternities and gives information on venereal disease, abortion, and contraceptive devices.

Companion Service, The American University, Washington, D.C.

Students, who are a part of the Hotline, volunteer for the companion program. After initial and followup training, they serve as an adjunct to a counselor and become a companion, friend, behavior change agent, and work with students directly. They might help a student through a crisis, be a support during or following therapy, serve as role players for practicum counselors or peers who need practice in social skills.

Counseling Adjunct Program, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois

Trained undergraduate students work as therapeutic agents in coordination with a university counselor to help a client. The adjunct spends time with and is able to help effect a change in behavior of the client.

Special Services, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

The counseling center staff is involved in training students to function as paraprofessionals. These students attempt to handle pre-crisis situations preventively in a resident hall setting. Crisis intervention teams trained in a variety of skills are also a part of the program. In another aspect of the program, the Office of Supportive Services was created to serve the needs of minority students. Twelve practicum graduate students focused upon counseling work with minority students. Counselors in training had practice in working with minority students in a practicum setting, rare in graduate programs, and minority youth presumably received help.

Special Services Project - Idaho State University, Pocatello, Idaho

Professional and student counselors worked with 232 Black, Indian, Chicano, or physically handicapped students. These students were helped with registering for classes, planning programs, finding jobs, obtaining financial loans, counseling and tutoring. The project is in its third year of operation and seems to be effective. A relatively high retention rate seems to exist.

A number of programs have been reported in which students are counseling students. The pattern, in addition to the student-to-student counseling, seems to include professionals who provide training and back-up support.

ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF PEER COUNSELING

The question of whether or not peer counseling should be advocated might be better answered if the reasons for and against it are examined. On the basis of my personal opinion and from the information gleaned from the review of literature, advantages and disadvantages to peer counseling will be presented.

ADVANTAGES OF PEER COUNSELING

Peers are able to understand each other because they find themselves is similar positions, life styles, and age ranges. They speak the same language, whether it be street talk or jargon. A communication problem often exists between a professional and a youth because they come from two different groups. Teachers of counselors and social workers stress that the therapist must understand the frame of reference of the client. This may be impossible.

Schlossberg (1967) suggested in her article about the use of subprofessionals that individuals are not influenced by members of another socio-economic class but are influenced by peers. A suggestion or request by a peer might get action while the same advice from a professional might be ignored. Clients and peer counselors from a low socio-economic class can understand and relate effectively. A typical middle class professional may have trouble talking with and understanding the same client. An example of this is offered by Pearl and Riesmann (1965) in their study of dropouts. Social workers found dropouts to be nonverbal; subprofessionals found the same individuals verbal. Relating to a peer may be easier than talking with a professional.

An additional reason that peers should be trained and used as counselors is that they are available to the students for more hours of the day and night than the professional counselor is. Times of crisis do not always occur during the 9 to 5 workday of the counselor. Having a peer counselor is a distinct advantage as a "significant other" to the troubled individual because he can be sought out very readily. Often the client of the peer counselor knows where his helper lives or is and feels free to contact him. Often, with a professional counselor, the counselee will not attempt to locate the professional because of limits set by the counselor or because the client has difficulty in locating the counselor. Along this same line of thinking, the peer might want to devote more time and become more personally involved with the client than the professional is able or is willing to do.

In peer counseling, the therapy occurs in the real world instead of in the office of the professional. The minority person, for example, feels at home in his environment but may feel like a fish out of water in the office of a counselor. He becomes aware of the counselor's desk, nice clothes, proper language and he becomes nonverbal. The peer has opportunity for much greater understanding of the client as he sees him as he is in his environment.

An outcome and, consequently, reason for use of subprofessionals is a serendipity one. Riessmann (1965), who studied and wrote about the "helper" therapy principle, theorized that the helper who gives help gets helped. Others have studied the "improvement in helpers" phenomenon, also. Truax, Silber and Wargo (1966) concluded that students who showed positive change in therapeutic and interpersonal skills in training also showed positive personality changes. Thus, a way to help individuals to grow personally and to feel worthwhile is to provide them with training and opportunity to help their peers.

Some individuals do not want to be counseled by a professional. An anti-shrink-think movement, on the part of young people in particular, seems to be in evidence today. Self help seems to be the "in" thing among drug users and groups like Alcoholics Anonymous and Synanon, which are conducted by peers, are successful. The methods and values of the professional are questioned and he is distrusted. Some individuals prefer talking with peers or friends instead of professionals.

Finally, a reason for using peer counselors is that they are capable of helping people therapeutically. If they are capable counselors, why should they not counsel? On the basis of the research reported in previous sections of this paper, the conclusion that peer counselors can be at least as effective as professional counselors seems warranted.

DISADVANTAGES OF PEER COUNSELING

When the feasibility of a new procedure or concept is examined, both the merits and liabilities need to be considered. Several disadvantages to peer counseling will be presented.

One disadvantage to utilizing peer counselors is transiency. In comparison to professionals, peer counselor-types tend to move more. In the CAUSE program study by Daily, Carlson, and McChesney (1968), CAUSE trainees tended to move more frequently than other employees. In a junior college or university setting, the time a student would serve as a peer counselor is limited by his school enrollment. A professional makes a long-range commitment to his field whereas a volunteer makes a commitment, probably not permanent, to a program.

In addition to losing the services of the volunteer, other problems accompany his departure. If the individual is a leader, his followers may withdraw from the program. If a meaningful relationship exists, transfer to another peer counselor may be difficult for the client. If the turnover of volunteers is rapid, a lack of continuity of services will result and the program will probably be affected negatively.

Lack of knowledge and information on the part of the peer counselor is another possible difficulty. He may be uninformed about referral sources and how to use them. He may be unaware of his own personal limitations. Because of lack of training, he may lack knowledge about how to work with a severly disturbed person and may attempt to continue his efforts when in fact he should not. Even though he has other types of knowledge and skills to contribute, he may lack the knowledge that a professional would possess. This disadvantage is probably the one which most professionals could cite as they criticize the idea of peer counseling.

A potential problem could result from allowing individuals to counsel who do not possess the qualities to enable them to be good counselors. Individuals, whether peer or professional, should be screened to eliminate those who are ineffective or potentially harmful. Unfortunately, adequate screening procedures have not been developed to accomplish this task. Unless a person can be helpful to the client, he should not be in the helper role.

A fourth problem is lack of trainers to train peer counselors. There is a dearth of good trainers available; the fact that the individual is a counselor educator or a doctoral level counselor does not insure that he can effectively train peer counselors. In fact, few graduate programs have courses which would prepare a counselor to serve in the trainer role. Carkhuff (1969) stated "The level of the counselor-trainer's functioning appears to be the single most critical aspect of effective training." (p.157). If a trainer is functioning at a low level of effectiveness, he will train low level functioning counselors. Thus, in order to produce effective counselors, it is very important to utilize high level functioning trainers to teach these individuals how to counsel.

Finally, evaluation of peer counseling programs will be difficult. To evaluate whether counseling by professionals is effective or not is formidable. Additional problems will be encountered in peer counseling programs where much is done informally rather than formally, and by individuals who are not research oriented. To substantiate that the program is effective may be difficult.

CONCLUSION

It is inevitable that nonprofessionals will be utilized in many settings in the future. Since the peer counseling movement has already commenced, our charge is to set up effective training programs to enable these individuals to counsel their peers. We should utilize our professional training and experience to decide what should be taught to the peer counselors; unless we provide some guidelines, someone who is unqualified will.

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Behavior Modification and the Paraprofessional in Human Service Occupations

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Recently at American River College (Sacramento, California) the psychology department received approval to adopt a course in behavior modification as a requirement for all students majoring in human services. Up to that time our students were being only minimally exposed to the many diverse therapeutic approaches to changing behavior. The bulk of their philosophical orientation was "group counseling" centered. Since there was no way of knowing every precise occupational skill that would be demanded of our graduates, it was believed that training in human relationships and group counseling techniques would offer the best kind of global training. Listed below is a sample of occupations where our human services graduates have been employed:

Teacher Assistant:

Employment is available in regular and special education classroom settings. The assistant helps teachers of the mentally retarded, educationally handicapped, partially or totally deaf and blind, and the physically handicapped.

Mental Health Worker:

This involves working as a member of a mental health team. The paraprofessional can do much in the community by liason work with patients, families and other persons requiring mental health services. There are also possibilities for employment in convalescent and long-term medical care homes.

Counselor Aide:

The paraprofessional assists counselors in the public schools (e.g. junior high through college) with record keeping, interviewing, and educational, vocational, and personal counseling. He may also recruit and give orientation information to new students.

Community Aide

Opportunities exist for paraprofessional employment with such agencies as welfare departments, planned parenthood, youth authority, parole and probation departments, and drug abuse programs.

One common denominator for all these diverse employment possibilities is that they involve working with people who have need of special help. The human services major then must be someone who has received broad training in psychology, sociology, anthropology -- in short, an expert in human relationships. It is with this understanding that we feel behavior modification is a necessary part of any well-rounded training program for the human services paraprofessional.

During the past few years there has been something of a quiet revolution in therapeutic and educational psychology. Conventional individual "talk" therapies have largely given way to group "talk" therapies. There has been, however, a great change from traditional thought on the part of some professionals who practice what is called behavior therapy or behavior modification. What is behavior modification? How does it work? Essentially, behavior modification emphasizes the learning of all types of behavior and rejects the disease or medical model of "emotional disturbances." The traditional approaches have stressed that underlying causes (e.g., a rejecting mother) lead to symptoms (e.g., anti-social behavior) which must be diagnosed (e.g., psychopathic personality type) and treatment prescribed as if it were a medical problem (e.g., psychotherapy, drug medication). Conventional therapy or counseling in this illustration would probably involve extensive "talking out" about the relationship with mother, presumably with an assumption that once the client has "spilled the beans" and released repressed thoughts, he will be better adjusted to deal with current reality--hence his anti-social behavior would become more social. Unfortunately, research conducted over the years has shown that conventional talk therapy approaches have not met with much success (see Berelson and Steiner [1], p. 287 for a summary).

While this example has been clinically oriented, many people in various helping professions, either knowingly or not, operate under the assumptions of the disease model, that is, treating behavior as merely a symptom of some underlying cause. The traditionalists believe that in order to evoke behavior change one must treat the cause, be it self-concept, repressed anger, or latent homosexual tendencies.

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[1] Berelson, B. and Steiner, G. A. Human behavior: An inventory of scientific findings. New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, 1964.

Professionals with a behavioral orientation focus upon the behavior itself as the main problem. It is the behavior that must be modified in order to bring about emotional change (e.g., improved self-concept), not vice-versa. Helping the client to actually change his behavior in the desired manner will then lead to his feeling better about himself. In contrast, the traditional view has held that we must deal directly with the client's view of himself first in order to change behavior. Consider the following case:

Pat, an attractive and physically healthy 17-year-old female, was enrolled in an introductory psychology course at American River College and sought out the senior author for help with a depression she had been having for the past six months. Pat had no awareness of what was causing it--only that she felt "down" too much of the time. I immediately asked her to keep records on such factors as when she felt depressed, what events in her environment happened just prior to her depression, and what consequences followed each episode. After two weeks of collecting baseline data, it was determined that Pat felt depressed mostly in the evening hours, often thinking about how miserable she was. She would then go to her bedroom and begin crying whereupon her mother would frequently come in and try to "cheer her up." Pat would eventually fall asleep and awaken in the morning feeling better. My focus of attention was not upon whether or not there was a "cause" for the depressions but what could be done about them - in other words, what environmental circumstances were sustaining or reinforcing depression. Pat was instructed to make a list of all the things that she enjoyed doing around the house, and as soon as she felt an impending depression, she was to immediately start one of the behaviors that she enjoyed doing. She also was told to avoid going to her bedroom and crying. Secondly, she was asked to construct a ranked list of the many ways in which she wanted to change. At the top of the list she put "overcoming shyness--making friends easier." We practiced a technique called modeling where I played the role of a stranger and she rehearsed the role of introducing herself and starting conversation. After practicing this several times, she was given "homework" assignments of introducing herself to at least one stranger a day. Other appropriate homework was given that paralled items on the behavioral change list. Within one week her depressions became infrequent and by the end of the second week they had disappeared completely. A follow-up on Pat's case some six months later revealed that she had no more problems with depression. By helping Pat change her behavior her depression was eliminated. Once again, behaviorists believe that behavorial change leads to emotional change. Traditional counseling would have attempted to treat her depression by talking about it, trying to uncover causes, the assumption being that once the cause was uncovered, presto-- behavior change!

It is often argued by traditional theorists that behavior modification merely deals with "symptoms" without getting at the "causes" of disorder (note the unquestioned assumption of a disease model even in the terms used to discuss "therapy"). Because the cause is not dealt with, it makes sense to assume it will "cause" some other symptom or behavioral disorder to appear. This notion has been labeled the "symptom substitution hypothesis." In the case with Pat, the fact that depressed behavior was dealt with directly should by this logic result in some other behavorial disorder because the cause of the depression was not dealt with. This did not happen in the case of Pat nor in reality is there any empirical support for the symptom substitution hypothesis even though it has been accepted as fact by Freudian psychiatrists for fifty years (Bandura[2]).

Behavorial Principles

The application of behavorial principles to practical problems usually involves the following concepts (see Diebert and Harmon [3]):

1. Personality is merely another label for behavior. We see, hear, and are affected by other persons' behavior. We don't see a personality. There are no basic personality types.

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[2] Bandura, A., Principles of behavior modification. New York:Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969.

[3] Diebert, A.N. and Harmon, A.J. New tools for changing behavior. Champaign, Ill: Research Press, 1970.

2. Labels are misleading.

Labeling a person as a introvert, underachiever, psychopathic, schizophrenic, or maladjusted adds nothing to understanding the ways in which people cope with their environments. If a person has an "introverted personality" he should behave that way in all situations. This simply is not the case. Furthermore, if we don't focus upon his specific behaviors we have no way of knowing what behavior changes have to take place in order for him to be "not introverted".

3. Behavior changes result in emotional and attitude changes.

If a person pinpoints what behaviors he would like to emit and those he would like to omit and the results are favorable, then feelings of satisfaction, happiness, enjoyment, etc., are likely to follow. In the same light, if the results are unfavorable, he feels disappointed, frustrated, and unhappy. For example, if a child is unhappy with school and we wish to improve his self-confidence we have to help him change his behavior to the point where the child feels he is succeeding. The desired emotional change follows successful behavior change.

4. Behavior is learned.

Behavior is largely learned from other people. It follows then that people can learn appropriate ways of behaving. Thus, whether we like to admit it or not, an otherwise physically healthy problem child has actually been taught to behave the way he does. It is not so much a matter of a poor "self-concept" or unconscious drives which determine behavior. A poor self-concept is the result of ineffective behavior.

5. Consequences control behavior.

This is perhaps the most basic of all behavior modification principles. It is diametrically opposite to the traditional approach of looking to the distant past for causes of behavior. If a behavior pays off (is rewarded or reinforced) it will tend to be repeated--if it fails to pay off, the behavior will tend not to be repeated. The environment we live in is influenced by us--we help design our world, pleasant or unpleasant, by the way we behave. If a program for behavior change doesn't work, it is the program that is faulty--not the client or the child. It is completely improper in behavioral psychology to suggest that a child is hopeless because of fuzzy notions like "he is an underachiever," or "he comes from a bad background."

6. Positive reinforcement.

Behaviors followed by positive consequences increase in frequency on future occasions. This statement while sounding quite simple really has an important implication. It is the realization that any behavior which an individual emits over and over again is being maintained by a reinforcer, that is, a desired outcome. For example, if a student has not learned an appropriate set of behaviors we must assume that efforts in that direction have not provided for an appropriate set of reinforcers for the behaviors. If a child engages in repeated temper tantrums, he is being reinforced for just that behavior--often by attention from a parent, teacher, or peer.

There are thousands of positive reinforcers in our world but it must be pointed out that what is reinforcement for one person is not necessarily reinforcement for another. A teacher may single out a teenage boy for praise in front of his peers only to find that he never does much worthy of praise again. By definition, then, praise, in front of peers, was not reinforcing. Perhaps it was even punishment! In spite of the idiosyncratic nature of some reinforcers, there are many positive reinforcers which are quite universal. Examples of common "social reinforcers" are smiles, praise, and attention. Being social in nature they are actually unlimited as to availability and quantity. Examples of more tangible and widely appreciated reinforcers are food, drink, and money.

7. Punishment.

Behavior that is followed by adversive (undesirable) consequences will decrease in frequency on future occasions. But punishment is not the opposite of positive reinforcement. It often works only for a few moments and has a price. That is, the reaction to punishment is to retaliate or avoid the punisher. Punishment also "tears down" behavior--it does not build appropriate behavior. At best, it only weakens certain behaviors. Individuals whose behaviors have been shaped largely by punishment or threats of it, do not learn to act, only how not to act. People trained in behavioral psychology advocate the use of punishment only to temporarily halt an undesirable behavior so that positive reinforcement can be used for a desired behavior.

Summary of Steps in Behavior Change

As in all strategies, there are basic steps in helping people to change their behavior whether it be a disruptive child in a classroom, a distraught mother, or a youth on probation. The paraprofessional in human services who adopts the behavorial approach needs to know these steps regardless of his specific job.

1. Define the target behavior in measurable terms.

For example, agressive behavior from a child might include kicking, talking back, throwing things, fighting. Once the behaviors are clearly defined in measurable terms, this will aid in accurately determining the rate of occurrence for these acts. It is also possible that behavior-change procedures will be different for each type of aggressive behavior.

2. Once the target behavior is clearly defined, the baseline rate is established.

Depending upon the ease of continuous or scheduled observations, the frequency of the behavior is recorded over a period of days or weeks. This baseline rate serves as a tangible record of what is actually happening now. Along with recording the baseline rate, an analysis is made of the conditions under which the behavior occurs or does not occur (under what conditions does which behavior occur, and followed by what reinforcers).

3. Specify the desired terminal behavior in measurable terms.

It is important to know what specific changes are desired so that the right behaviors are reinforced as well as counted for ongoing analysis. For example, the terminal behavior for a child in a classroom might be "works at his assignment for 10 consecutive minutes without talking to peers." A wife who is unhappy over the lack of general affection from her husband may specify "five affectionate responses per day (e.g., kiss, hug, pat, etc.)."

4. Change the current reinforcement system by rearranging the behavorial consequences.

To increase behavior -- increase the reinforcement. To decrease behavior -- eliminate all reinforcement. This is the beginning of an attempt to manipulate the environment in order to modify the behavior. One must also be sure that the new consequences occur consistently and systematically. For example, the person who is attempting to give up smoking cigarettes must reward himself profusely (at least in the beginning) for not smoking during a specified period of time. A child who throws temper tantrums must get no more attention for a tantrum but much attention for incompatible desired behaviors (e.g., friendly play with sister).

5. Continue recording the target and terminal behaviors.

Feedback is very important in order to determine the effectiveness of a behavorial program. If results are unsuccessful, the program is faulty and must be changed. Such records also serve as a guide through which continued refinement of reinforcement procedures may be made.

Application of Behavior Modification to a Human Services Paraprofessional Job

Thus far we have tried to give the reader an overview of the behavorial approach in dealing with a variety of human relationships. We have not yet been specific as to how behavior modification procedures might be employed in a particular human services job. Consider teacher assistant employment as an example. In regular elementary schools today, the teacher often has 25-40 students in a class. School personnel have realized that if any kind of systematic individualized attention is to be given to students, other personnel will have to be hired to assist the teacher. Thus, we have seen school districts employ a number of teacher aides or assistants and even effectively use volunteer workers from the local high school, college and general community. The primary role of the teacher remains organization of the learning program while the assistants help maintain order and execute the wishes of the teacher.

One of the most innovative teaching techniques (or motivational systems) has been the use of "token economy" programs in a variety of institutional settings. The primary purpose of these programs is to construct an environment where learning is enhanced because motivation is high. Very often when children must function in large groups the situation becomes chaotic with much time and effort on the part of teachers and aides directed toward maintaining order rather than promoting learning. Individualized reinforcement to students is sparse, and it is difficult to pay attention to the children when they are actively working. What often happens is that disrupting children take much precious time away from the teacher who should be actively reinforcing children who are busy at the learning task. This is precisely where a token economy program can be of great benefit to the teacher.

Money is a token in our economy with which we are all familiar. But money only represents goods and services. The receipt of money guarantees that we can obtain desired goods and services. Such a token is a powerful positive reinforcer. A teacher or aide can create tokens whether they be poker chips, points, scraps of colored paper or play money that may be awarded to pupils contingent upon specified amounts of certain behavior. The tokens serve as positive reinforcers because they represent to the child some desired good or service. The back-up value of the token is dispensed when the holder of the token surrenders the token to the teacher or aide. Examples of back-up values include drinks, food (e.g., access to candy), free activity to do what the pupil wants, recess, parties, games, etc. Tokens can be redeemed on an individual or group basis. An interesting fact is that children who have never responded well to natural reinforcers such as adult approval or pride in a job done well will work hard for tokens that allow them to do things they want to do.

Repeated pairings of attention and praise from an aide with the dispensing of tokens usually increases the value of the social reinforcers so that tokens can be withdrawn gradually while the natural reinforcers take over. It should be noted that the teacher assistant or aide makes a valuable contribution to the entire program by playing a primary role in dispensing tokens contingent upon desirable behavior. This helps to free the teacher enabling him to pay special attention to students who experience learning difficulty. Vernon[4] has listed other advantages of token economy programs:

1. Token values do not "wear out".

Tangible reinforcers like candy soon lose their value when the child has had enough. Even continued praise can lose its value if used too frequently.

2. No distraction effect.

Children do not stop to consume tokens, as they do with food reinforcers, nor do they pay much attention to tokens which have little amusement value.

3. Flexible administration and redemption.

Tokens can be dispensed for any behavior the teacher or assistant wishes to develop. Also, the payoff rate can be adjusted according to the effort by the student. Because any particular reinforcer may be reinforcing to one child but meaningless for another child, the value of tokens is that they are highly flexible because the system offers a wide variety of back-up reinforcers from which each student can choose.

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[4] Vernon, W.M. Motivating children. Behavior modification in the classroom. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1972.

4. Management of children who are unresponsive to social reinforcers.

Tokens have proved to be powerful influences on children who seem "unreachable" in conventional ways.

5. Little delay of reinforcement.

Tokens are given out at the moment of achievement. This contrasts sharply with grades on report cards or gold stars placed on homework assignments that are graded and returned the next day.

Many human service occupations will require familiarity with token economies as they become ever more popular-hopefully the future human service major will have an exposure to this system before he begins working in an agency using it.

Another application of behavior modification principles in an educational setting is the recent development of the station concept of teaching the trainable mentally retarded. A conventional classroom is subdivided into several stations where specific behavioral skills are taught, be it some aspect of reading, math, writing, or social skill. Teacher assistants who are trained in behavior modification techniques man the stations. The entire learning task is broken down into discrete steps which the child must master at a high proficiency level before he proceeds to the next step or station. Reinforcers are dispensed at each station. Such programs depend upon many more teacher assistants than do conventional classes, but the results of this type of behavioral approach appear quite promising.

We hope it is clear that there are seemingly endless possibilities for using behavioral techniques in a variety of occupational settings. Some students of behavior modification have termed it a "common sense" approach.

It is quite logical in theory and application, and yet the behavioral approach has been offered as an alternative to the traditional orientation which at one time was thought to be "common sense" (e.g., the medical model of explaining behavior). We feel there is an urgent need to train human service students to "think behaviorally," both for practical application and also to simply keep current with the times. The paraprofessional in human services must be aware of all the possibilities for helping people. He must become better educated, be trained to search for viable alternatives in increasing his job proficiency. As our understanding of behavioral principles increases and we learn to apply them more effectively, so will behavioral changes be brought about more efficiently and quickly. Whatever the inevitable improvements in behavioral technology bring in the future, the possibilities for enhancing individual functioning and learning skills are indeed exciting.

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Continuing Education: So you want to Help People

By

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May 1, 1972

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May 1, 1972

FROM: Dr. James G. Dugger Jim
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Denver, Colorado 80204

RE: Continuing Education

Richard Martinez asked me to share with the Core Faculty one of the techniques we use to encourage indiginous workers to become involved in an educational program. This program is a pre-college program; however, it is classed as continuing education.

The entire staff of the Helping Services Department of Metropolitan State College moves to the neighborhood social action centers where the educational programs are conducted. The purpose for the staff to be involved at the action center is to encourage the neighborhood worker that he can do college level work. Many of the employees in the action centers are afraid of the task and have a poor self-concept of their academic abilities.

When we meet them in their own territory, part of the trauma is avoided. The sessions are held one day per week over a period of several weeks. Included are programs in group dynamics, interviewing, and the helping relationships. Many comment that the staff are very warm people; they didn't know they could learn so much; they weren't aware that learning could be so interesting and so much fun.

Sample programs are attached.

JGD:bh
attch

SO YOU WANT
TO
HELP PEOPLE

forget it

unless......

You...

1. Know why you want to help -- in the first place

   It seems important for the "helper" to know why he wants to help. This, of course, is related to #20 "Really Care" -- but it is necessary to ask yourself this question - why do I want to help? What are my motives? In what do I believe? What is my philosophy of service to others?

2. Know enough about yourself and how you feel about the people you help. It is a good idea to look at one's self with these questions planted firmly in one's mind - what are my attitudes about the people I want to help? How do I feel about them? Do I have problems in my human relations? Do I prejudge people?

3. Really mean to do it

   The people we want to help have seen and met with many well-meaning people who start programs and projects. The people we want to help wait for us to come to the groups and help. They depend upon us. But then they get a call - "car trouble" - "unavoidable situation" - and we don't come - they begin to lose confidence and trust. They see us and consider us a "Hit and Run Volunteer." We must not let them down - once we make a promise - we must keep it - we must come through!

4. Have sufficient knowledge, understanding and acceptance of the people you want to help.

Many times much of what we know about the people we want to help is based on what we have heard in a "round about way", what we have read in newspapers, what we have imagined and sometimes, other sources. It is important for us to have knowledge, to study, to observe and to investigate as much as possible. It is important to know, to understand and to accept: You must ask yourself - on what do I base my knowledge? What do I really know? Do I understand? Am I willing to accept the people that I want to help?

5. Can "see life" through their eyes.

The people we want to help have seen and met a procession of people who have come in and out of their neighborhoods, groups, agencies and communities. Sometimes the "helpers" see them as residents of a slum-ghetto without hope - and without the helpers, life would be impossible! It seems important to look at life as they see it - to look at the community as they see it - and understand the distrust of the temporary "helper" who seems to see the neighborhood in a negative way.

6. Have respect for them and their strengths.

The need for help does not mean a state of weakness. The need for help does not mean that the people we help have a lower status and that they do not deserve our respect. It is important that we show respect through our way of work, our conversations; our expectations and most of all, recognize and utilize their strength - because they have them!

7. Know how to communicate with them.

   All of us need to know how to communicate with each other no matter who we are - where we work - and what we do! It is more important than ever for the helper to know how to communicate with people we want to help. There seems to be no simple answer to the question - "How should you communicate?" The answer is like the one Louis Armstrong gave while he was in Europe - some one asked Mr. Armstrong if he would define jazz and Mr. Armstrong answered, - "If you have to ask you'll never know!"

8. Accept their opinions

   The "helped" have ideas and opinions too! They can tell us many things. They are resourceful and creative. They have many new and different ideas: they know that some of the ordinary run-of-the-mill ideas have not met their needs, held their interest or their attendance. Maybe we are without new ideas, maybe we are "wrung dry" of new approaches - that does not mean that they don't have any! They do!

9. Let them tell you what they want, what they feel, they need and what they want from you.

   How do you know that the plan you propose is the one that the people you help want and feel that they need? Many times you are disappointed in the response of the people to your plans. We all recognize and are proud of our talents - we want to share our talents and our skill. Suppose no one comes to the group or the class. How do we react? We become discouraged and we think that the people are apathetic. We need to ask ourselves a very important question - "Did they ask for this service? Is this what they wanted?

10. Are willing to listen

Most of the time the "helpers" have responsibility for the conversation. The conversation is usually based on what the "helper" wants to say. Seldom are there questions that require more than a "yes or no" answer. The "helper" would be amazed and astonished at the answers to questions like - "What do you think?" "What would work best?" The "helper" must not just sit there and wait his turn to speak - but must listen, and listen and listen.

11. Are willing to be taught

When we help the disadvantaged, the poor or the deprived, we sometimes think we are the authorities - the only people who are knowledgeable, and many times we regard ourselves as the experts! One week in the community will make us realize that there are many things we do not know. We would be pleased and inspired by the education that we could receive from the people we have chosen to help. They can teach us "how it is" - They can help us to see life as it really is - They are realistic - and they can help us match "what we do" with "what we think" - "with what we feel" --

12. Are willing to let them help you

    For a long time helping has been one way - the poor people, the disadvantaged were receivers of our generosity, our knowledge and our resources. Many times we never gave our receivers one precious and important gift - the opportunity for them to help us. We have discovered that this is not true. Helping is a "mutual operation" it means that the helper can learn and can free himself of this "one way" approach to satisfaction of giving and get a "two way reward" when we let the people we help - help us!

13. Involve the local community or group in the plan right from the start

    It is important for the local community, agency or group to be a part of the planning group as a project is started. The "helped" community should have a voice at the beginning - they must not be invited or included as "token representatives" or "window dressing" - they must be a part of the real team at the start!

14. Can work within the framework of the setting you have chosen to help

    When you go into the community or the neighborhood to help - it is important for you to work within the framework and the philosophy of the setting that you have chosen. It is necessary to realize that there is a structure there already - there are people there and they have goals, aspirations, skill, knowledge and standards and plans of their own.

15. Recognize that other people and groups help too

In spite of the many problems that exist in the disadvantaged communities, many people, agencies, organizations and groups have been aware of and concerned with the problems that we all want to solve. It is important for us to realize that on a day-to-day basis, these groups and people have been at work to try to give effective service to the people there. When we come into the neighborhood or the community to help, we must not underestimate the strengths of those who are at work. Rather, we should join the team of workers in the neighborhood and we must be careful - and we must not play the role of the "Lone Helper" - the only source of help in the neighborhood. Such action causes many problems - all of them are obvious!

16. Can take criticism

It may be hard for us to take criticism from anyone - but most of all from the people that we help. They disagree - and maybe, one day they will tell us what they really think! We may be shocked, upset - or even angry! They may seem ungrateful - for after all, we are "giving up our pleasures" to help them. The frank and honest reaction, feeling or point of view from the person we help could be the most valuable contribution to our growth and our maturity.

17. Wait to form an opinion based on fact

We have said this over and over in this little document - let us not form an opinion about the people and their community until we know what we are talking about - until we have the facts. We must not generalize on percentages and statistics that we "invent" or "make up" so that we can substantiate our service, or worth and even our service in the community. We must have facts and such facts must be based on a responsible source.

18. Can evaluate what you have done and how you have done it

Many times "we play by ear" - we judge our success by our feeling of success. It is important to utilize the more orderly methods of evaluation. In order to assess the value of your service or to evaluate the effectiveness of your leadership, it is necessary to look at what has been done and how it has been done based on an acceptable criteria in the field of education, social welfare or other appropriate fields.

19. Know how long you are needed

To "release control" for something that we have started is a very hard thing to do. It is important for us to know when to move out of the picture, to let the neighbors in the community continue what we have started. We may lose our effectiveness if we stay for long.

20. Really care

There is an awareness by many dedicated, sincere and well-meaning people who want to help disadvantaged people. This is good!

The need to help people is long overdue as all of the research studies and demonstration projects have shown us. The national and local awareness of problems has inspired young people and adults to help people who need it - such needs may be economic, educational, health, social and other. Just to help because "it is the thing to do" has little meaning - because you don't mean it. You have to care about the people you help. You have to care about the problems that cause them to need your help. You have to care about the way you help. You have to care how they feel about your help and the way you help!

In Conclusion -

"Lip Service or Life Service"
which will it be?

IS HELP HELPFUL?*

People in the service professions often see themselves as primarily engaged in the job of helping others. Helping becomes both the personal style of life and a core activity that gives meaning and purpose to the life of the professional. The youth worker, the camp director, the counselor, the consultant, the therapist, the teacher, the lawyer - each is a helper.

Helping is a central social process. The den mother, the committee chairman, the parent, the personal friend, the board member, the dance sponsor - each is a helper.

Help, however, is not always helpful. The recipient of the proffered help may not see it as useful. The offering may not lead to greater satisfaction or to better performance. Even less often does the helping process meet a more rigorous criterion - lead to continued growth on the part of the participants.

To begin with, a person may have varied motivations for offering help. He may wish to improve performance of a subordinate, reduce his own guilt, obtain gratitude, make someone happy, or give meaning to his own life. He may wish to demonstrate his superior skill or knowledge, induce indebtedness, control others, establish dependency, punish others, or simply meet a job prescription. These conscious or partially conscious motivations are so intermingled in any act of help that it is impossible for either the helper or the recipient to sort them out.

Depending upon his own needs and upon the way he sees the motives of the helper, the recipient will have varied reactions. He may feel gratitude, resentment, or admiration. He may feel helpless and dependent, or jealous of the helper who has the strength or resources to be in the helper role. He may feel indebted, or pressured to conform to the perceived demands or beliefs of the helper.

We have all noticed that in certain cases the recipient of the help becomes more helpless and dependent, less able to make his own decisions or initiate his own actions, less self-sufficient, more apathetic and passive, less willing to take risks, more concerned about propriety and conformity, and less creative and venturesome. We have also seen circumstances in which, following help, recipients become more creative, less dependent upon helpers, more willing to make risk decisions, more highly motivated to tackle tough problems, less concerned about conformity, and more effective at working independently or interdependently. Help may or may not lead to personal growth and organizational health.

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*By Jack Gibb, reprinted from Forum, 1964, pages 25-27.

TASK FORCES WILL HAVE THE FOLLOWING FUNCTIONS:

1. Establish objectives and goals
2. Prepare premises important for planning
3. Forecast the long-range environment
4. Search for alternate courses of action to achieve the goals
5. Evaluate alternate courses of action
6. Identify opportunities and threats
7. Select a course or courses of action to follow
8. Formulate derivative plans in operational and functional areas
9. Establish program schedules
10. Implement the plans
11. Establish measurements and controls to assure the progress of the plan

COMPREHENSIVE PLAN FOR COMMUNITY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT FOR SOUTHWEST DENVER TO INCLUDE THE FOLLOWING:

1. Public Works
2. Land Usage and Zoning
3. Transportation
4. Industrial Development
5. Law Enforcement and the Administration of Justice
6. Educational Programs, Services and Opportunities
7. Political Education and Participation
8. Manpower Development and Training
9. Medical and Health Care
10. Financial Development and Control
11. Programs, Groups and Community Coordination
12. Youth Services Programs and Opportunities
13. Comprehensive Consumer Affairs and Services
14. Housing Development and Rehabilitation
15. Social Services Delivery System
16. Neighborhood and Community Planning

COMMON GROUP PROBLEMS

Is attendance at your meetings falling off? Are some of the members not following through on promises? Are your meetings getting longer? Are fewer decisions being made? Are people coming late to meetings and appointments? Are people griping about the leadership? Are members saying that nothing is happening?

These problems happen in every group. Usually they begin in the third or fourth meeting. They are not the real problems, or course. They are only outer signs of dissatisfaction. The good organizer and leaders of a group must understand and deal with these deeper problems, not just change the signs.

Why do these signs occur about the third or fourth meeting?

This is about when each member is beginning to ask himself, "Do I want to be with these other people? Do I want to swing with them? Am I really committed to what they are talking about? Do I trust them?

Each individual must answer these questions for himself before he begins to act with a group.

But when the "signs of dissatisfaction," such as lateness, absences, longer meetings and fewer decisions keep bubbling out, then the organizer and leader had better look deeper for the causes of these signs.

GOOD LEADERSHIP

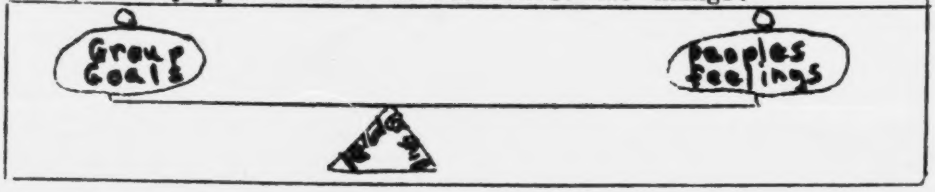
The first place to look is at the leadership itself. What is going on between the leaders and the followers? Most of the time you can find the problems there.

What makes a good leader?

1. The leader is in front of the group--but not too far in front.
2. He/She is sensitive to the needs and problems of members.
3. He/She watches silent members to see what their silence is saying.
4. He/She talks openly about signs of a power struggle, and reassures the group about his own strength.
5. He/She lays hidden issues and personal interests on the table.
6. He/She knows how to listen, to reflect to the group, to run a meeting, to make confrontations, and to comment on group problems.
7. He/She doesn't get sucked into other people's despair.

1. Goals Vs. People Balance

If it is to move forward, every group must have people who are concerned about both the other people in the group and the goals of the group. The good leader keeps the proper balance between these two things.

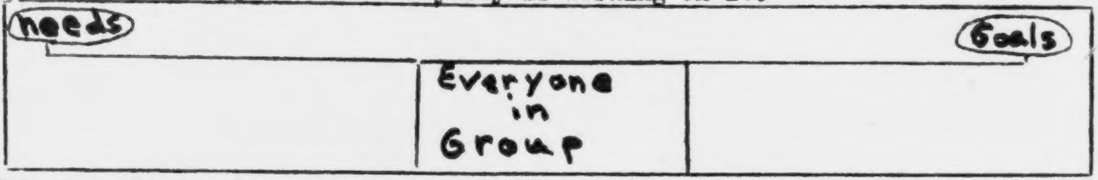


One kind of leader only worries about the goals of the group. The leader knows what these goals are, so he pushes, persuades, begs, drives, reasons, demands, punishes and rewards the rest of the group, trying to move toward these goals. But often, in the process, he hurts the feelings of other people and makes them mad.

Another kind of leader spends all his time taking care of the feelings and needs of the rest of the group. He helps other group members express their feelings when they are hurt or mad. But he rarely gets the group to move toward its goals, the reasons for its existence in the first place.

The best kind of leader balances his time and concern between goals and people. He keeps pushing the group and at the same time takes care of it. And by doing this well, the group stays together and moves forward.

If the leaders of a group do their job of increasing the awareness of each group member to the goals and needs of the group, soon the balance is not so difficult to keep, because everybody is working on it.



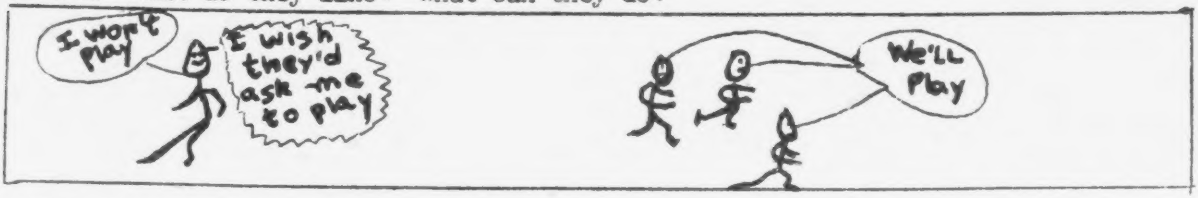
This is called collective leadership.

2. Needs of Members

In order to meet the needs of members, first you must recognize them. In the beginning the group leaders must take care of these needs, but if the group grows honestly, soon everyone will be on the alert for them. What are some of these needs?

We need to achieve, to be praised for it. Everyone likes to do things and get recognition for it. Those people who haven't done anything in your group will be the first ones to leave when the going gets rough. They probably feel the leaders think they are useless anyway.

Parties and other social gatherings not only meet social needs, they also give leaders a chance to get to know members better, especially the silent ones. What do they like? What can they do?


I won't play
I wish they'd ask me to play
We'll Play

There is another kind of need which many of us have. It is the need to be better than someone else. We call this a competitive need.

3. Competition

Many people grow up with a need to show they're better than someone else. This is because they have been beaten down by parents, teachers, cops and other big people when they were little. Sometimes it's because their parents encouraged them to compete with their brothers and sisters.

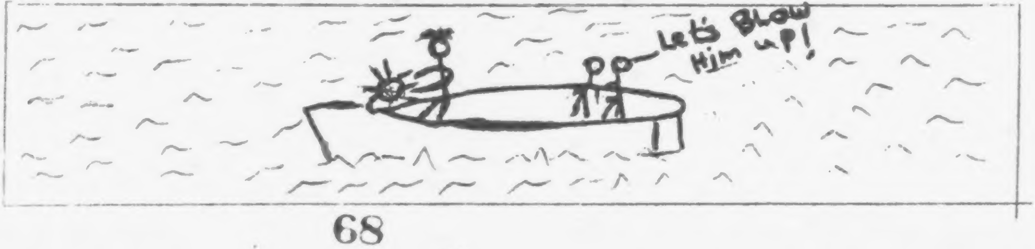
Whatever the reasons, this compete and beat need pops up in many groups.

The competitor generally operates on two levels. The first level we'll call the "brother" level. He is afraid to take on the old man. But he'll fight like crazy to prove he is better than all his brothers and sisters. The competitor will set up tests of strength between himself and other brothers to prove to the "parents" that he is the best of all the kids. These tests of strength between "brothers" mess up more groups than any other problem.

Sometimes the competitor will have the guts to take on the leader. This is called a power struggle. He will challenge the "old man's" way of doing something, or begin to criticize him behind his back. Some power struggles are good. For example, when the group has not decided on a program, it can be healthy, but only if the challenger or somebody else is ready to take over when the leader goes down.

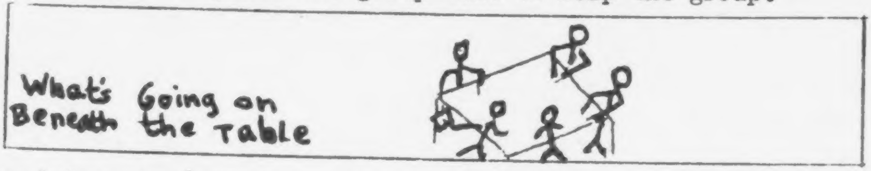
Most of the time power struggles hang up the whole group. Usually the people who are trying to shoot down the leader and the group's program haven't thought about leading the group themselves. They just don't want to be led.

One leader, who was being attacked by a couple of people who didn't give a damn about what was going to happen to the group after he was gone, pointed out gently, "You sink me baby, and you sink the ship."


Let's Blow Him up!

4. Hidden Interests

Another big problem in groups are hidden interests. These are the personal interests of different members which go against the group interests. For example, one person in the group may be trying to impress some people in the group. That person is not really concerned with the goals of the group. What is said and done is to impress the group--not to help the group.


What's Going on Beneath the Table

These hidden interests (sometimes they are not hidden very well) must be brought out by other group members or leaders, so they do not wreck the group.

5. Dealing with Despair

Civil rights groups sing the song, "Ain't gonna let disappointment turn me 'round." But disappointment and despair (no hope) have turned more groups 'round than any other problem. Especially groups of poor reople, who have had the hope kicked out of them all their lives.

If they don't win a quick victory, they say, "What's the use?" And one person's despair can spread through a group faster than chicken pox through a family of 9 kids.

There are two main causes of despair:

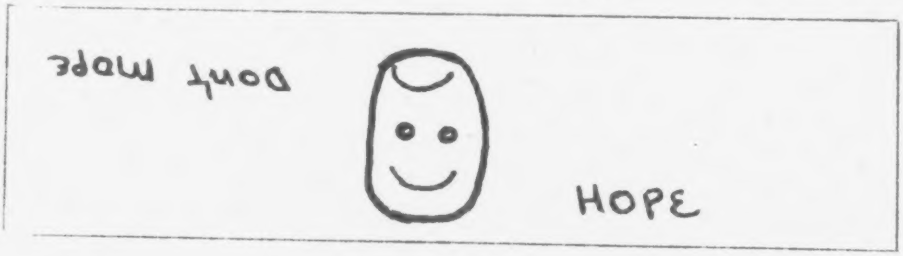
A. Group dishonesty.

B. Leader being unsure of himself.

A. Group dishonesty: The "what's the use?" behavior is often an outer sign of inner feelings of bottledup anger. For some reason, the person has forbidden himself from showing this anger. He is afraid if he open his mouth to express any feelings, the anger is so strong that it will come gushing out. So he clamps on his straight jacket, folds his arms tightly across his chest, and says, "I don't think we should try anything. What's the use?"

The leader must set an atmosphere in which anger and disappointment can be honestly talked about. This will prevent epidemics of despair.

B. An Unsure Leader: The leader must separate his own bad moods from the groups moods. It is easy to get sucked into someone else's dumps. Especially when the leader wants to avoid a painful job. But if the leader starts moping--instead of hoping--it kills the group.



Short-range goals and small successes are the building blocks of hope. Often the leader hears more about the small successes than the rest of the group. He must keep the group informed of all successes, no matter how small.

The hope, confidence and honesty of the leader sets the tone for the whole group. Have you ever been in a group which is down in the dumps? Then the leader walks in and says, "I know we're going to win. And this is why we're going to win."

What happens to the group?

SUMMARY OF COMMON GROUP PROBLEMS

We have analyzed five problem areas about leaders and members of groups:

1. Goals Vs. People Balance
2. Meeting needs of members
3. Compete and beat game
4. Spotlighting hidden interests
5. Honesty and hope

Do you recognize any of these problem areas in your groups?

SOME GROUP TECHNIQUES

We have listed the problems, but we haven't said too much about how to prevent them. In every group the problems are different. There are some ways, however, which can help you deal with them before they wreck the group.

LISTEN

Don't talk too much. Listen. Ask questions. Try to hear where other people are. This makes you much more sensitive to their needs--and talents.

REFLECT

Reflect back what other members say, to be sure you are hearing well. If a group member says, "I'm not happy with the way Joe is running this show," you might say, "You feel that Joe is pushing too hard?" This gives him a chance to tell how he really feels, and improves understanding in the group.

AGENDA

Always make up an agenda before a meeting. Let everyone see it and agree on it before you start.

SIT IN A CIRCLE

Sit around in a circle. This helps you become sensitive to some of the relationships within the group. It also promotes better (more honest) discussions.

People who sit next to each other often depend on each other for support. People who sit across from each other will often "take each other on" during the meeting. Soon you can pick up other clues from the seating arrangement.

Don't put a table in the middle unless you have a lot of writing to do. Tables help people avoid dealing with each other.

WATCH FACIAL AND BODY EXPRESSIONS

Look for disagreement in the facial and body expressions of silent members. Ask then what's bugging them. Get it out into the open and deal with it.

DON'T AVOID CONTRONTATIONS

If two people are at each other's throats, but don't ever talk about it in the group, get it out in the open. You might say, "You two are creating problems in the group. What's the matter with you two?"

Or if it's you who is avoiding the confrontation, look at yourself, One good way of confronting another person is to say, "I feel that I'm having a problem with Jane, so I want to get it out in the open. Jane, I disagree with the way you ran the yesterday's meeting."

GROUP COMMENTS

You can also make comments about the group itself. When things are hung up you might say, "What the hell is going on in this group?" Some of the members will have good ideas about what the hangup is. For example, one might say, "I feel it's because Harvey has been taking all the credit and we're doing all the work."

Confrontations and honest group comments can help lossen things up--and make the group itself more honest.

HOW TO NEGOTIATE

You got to talk when the spirit says talk
You got to talk when the spirit says talk
Oh when the spirit says talk,
You got to talk, oh Lord,
You got to talk when the spirit says talk.

-Civil Rights Song

WHY TALK?

Action groups get tired of meeting and talking all the time. They want action. But there are some good reasons for a formal talk with your opponents--which is called negotiating.

GET THE RIGHT MAN

The most important reason to sit down with your opponents is to make sure they are your opponents. Many times groups get all stirred up about some issue and they begin swinging away at the wrong enemy. This happens because the real enemy is usually smart enough to set up a smoke screen. He sits back and chuckles while people who should be allies in the fight against him, fight against each other. This is what the Southern politicians and landowners have done with the Negroes and the poor white people.

To find out whether he is really the enemy, go over your demands as clearly and simply as possible to the man. Can he meet the demands, if he really wanted to? If not, find out who can. He is your man.

HOW MUCH POWER ON EACH SIDE?

When you are sure that he is the right man, the next thing to do is to be sure each of you understands the other one's power. Many fights could be avoided if people had checked beforehand to see which side was the strongest.

USE NEGOTIATIONS TO STRENGTHEN YOUR GROUP!

Another reason to negotiate is to get your group together. If the group is still not together for a big push, sometimes a meeting with its opponents is a good way to get it turned on. If this is the purpose, try to get as many of the group as possible to the negotiation scene. Let everybody see what they are up against. And let your opponent see what he's up against.

MAKE YOUR THREATS BELIEVABLE

The fourth reason for talking with your opponent is to get across to him as clearly as possible what will happen if he does not come through on your demands. This is called making your threat believable. People act quickly when they are truly threatened. When they think you are just bluffing, they will bluff back. Spell it out slowly and carefully to them.

A good example of the believable threat was when some Japanese railroad workers, who were striking for better pay, chained themselves to the tracks in front of a long freight train. They had some friends put padlocks on the chains which were wrapped around their bodies and the trackes. Then their friends threw the keys into a nearby river. All this was done in full view of the fink engineers who had broken the strike and were going to drive the trains for the bosses.

This threat to stop the trains was made quite believable. The trains did not go. And the workers got their raises.

You can make your threats just as believable if you go over them in a straightforward and reasonable manner with your opponent.

FIGHT ABOUT THE IMPORTANT THINGS

You should also sit down with your opponent to be sure you are fighting about the important things. You may have the right man, but be fighting about the wrong problem.

For example, you might meet with the Chief of Police in your town or precinct to demand that his men stop using the word "boy" or "hillbilly" or "broad". You may find that the Chief has already issued an order against the use of such words, but his men are not following his order. After he shows you his written order, perhaps you could get him to give you a copy of it, so that it could be well-publicized through the community.

The Chief is probably the right man, but you shouldn't be fighting with him about issuing an order. Instead, the problem is getting the order enforced.

WELL-PUBLICIZED NEGOTIATIONS GAIN PUBLIC SUPPORT

The last reason for negotiating is to gain public support. Most people will sympathize with direct action tactics more readily if you have built up a case for them. So, if you can say in your community and larger newspapers that you tried to sit down and talk over your demands, people will be more likely to support you in a campaign of non-cooperation or whatever other direct action tactic you decide upon.

DON'T NEGOTIATE FOR SOMEONE ELSE

If the problem is not yours, don't talk for someone else. For too long, poor people have had do-gooders negotiating for them. This is one of the main reasons why we are still poor. As an organizer, it is your job to teach the group how to negotiate for its demands--not do it for them.

DON'T NEGOTIATE IF YOU ARE NOT PREPARED TO ACT

If you are not willing to take action if your negotiations breakdown, then don't negotiate.

DON'T NEGOTIATE IF YOU ARE NOT WILLING TO DO THE HARD WORK

And if all you want is the glory of winning an argument, but not the hard work of organizing a strike, a sit-in or a demonstration, then don't negotiate.

summarizing

Why Talk ---

1. to get the right man
2 to chack each other's power
3. to make threat believable.
4 to strengthen group
5 to fight about important things.
6. to gain public support

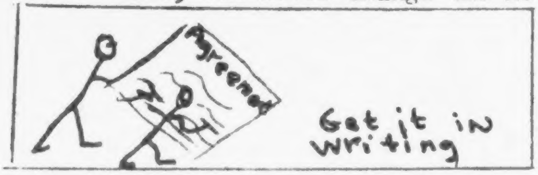
But Don't TALK ---

1. for someone else
2. if you're not ready to take action
3. if you don't want to do the hard work of organizing direct action

1. Always write your demands. Make them simple and clear. Be sure everyone in the group understands them. This will make it easier for the negotiating team to get them across to the opponent, too.

2. Always get the opponent's position in writing. Ask him to write out and sign any promise that he makes. Sometimes they will say they agree with your demands, but nothing is ever said about when and how they will carry their "agreement" out. Don't leave until this is made clear--and you have it in writing. Also, ask him to sign a copy of the demands you take, because later on he may claim he never talked with you and never heard what you wanted.

If you remember the importance of putting it in writing, you are on your way. You can always change a few words, but never change the meaning of your demands.



3. Always role play a negotiation scene beforehand. Get a couple of guys to play the part of the opponents. Two or three other oepole can play the part of the negotiating team. Then switch sides. Those that were on the negotiating team play the part of the opponents, and vice versa.

It might go something like this:

OPPONENTS: (In a low voice) Come in, come in. I haven't got all day.

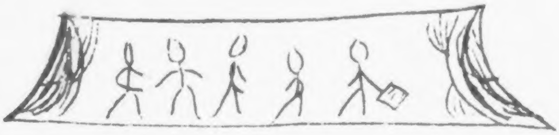
NEGOTIATING TEAM MEMBER: Thank you. This is Charles Smith, Roy Hobbs, and Sue Mulloy. We'd like to talk with you about several problems.

OPPONENTS: (Deciding to be friendly.) Why of course. I'm always glad to sit down with people that have problems.

NEGOTIATING TEAM MEMBER: We represent a union of 2,000 people who want the following things (handing the OPPONENTS copies of the demands).

...and so forth.

After you have played it through a couple of times, you can hold elections on who would be the best people to make up the negotiating team. You also should pick the "captain" of the team.



4. Always select a negotiating team. This gives you more room to maneuver. For example, in the middle of the negotiations, your opponent might ask you if you would be willing to accept a compromise solution--offering you "half a loaf". Since you don't want to refuse him flatly (he may be feeling out your strength), you might say, "Well, that's an interesting suggestion. If you would write out what you had in mind, we'll take it back to the organization and see how everybody feels about it."

5. Never underestimate your opponent. If he is a businessman or a big gun in an agency, he probably got there because of his ability to negotiate. When he starts slinging big words around, ask him to break it down. Will he meet your demands? If not, what, specifically, is his position? You need to know, so you can tell the group. They have sent you to find out what his position is.

Everytime he tries to throw you off the track, just ask him very slowly, "What will you do about our demands?"

Role play-negotiations

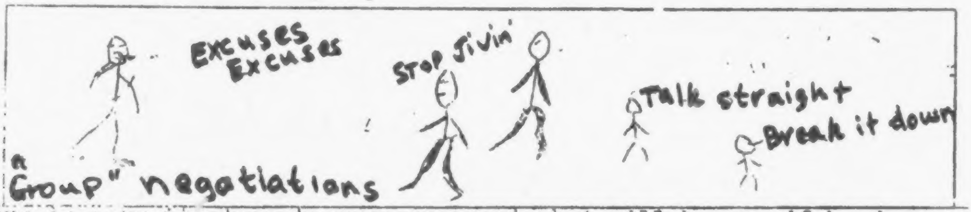
A good example of this simple questioning technique was in a small rural community which was about to lose its neighborhood health clinic. The County Health Department sent a man down to the community center to try to explain why the clinic had been removed without telling a soul in the community. It was a large turnout, and the Health Department man explained and explained. Finally he said, "Are there any questions?"

A women in the back of the room stood up and said slowly, "Why are you taking the clinic?"

The Health Department man explained for about ten more minutes. Then he asked if there were any other questions.

Then a man stood up and said very slowly, "Why are you taking the clinic?"

This game went on for about an hour before the Health Department man realized that he could not lie to this group.

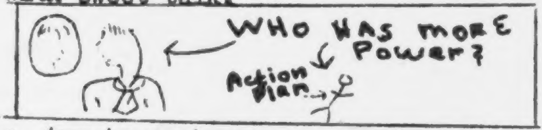


"Group" negotiations

6. Be sure to make it clear to your opponent what will happen if he does not meet your demands. Know what your strength is before you negotiate. And spell out what you plan to do if the negotiations break down.

7. Be sure you have an action plan before you negotiate. If you do not have an action plan in your pocket when you go to negotiate, you are just bluffing. And most of your opponents will call your bluff.

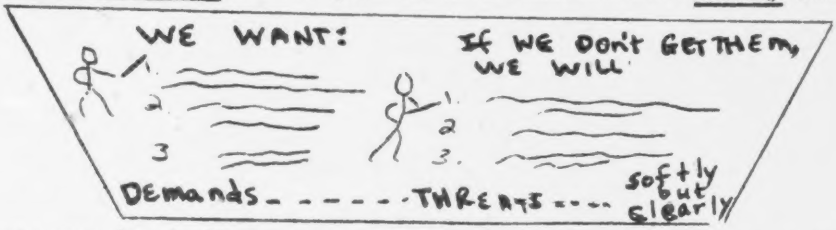
A negotiating team of four people which is trying to get an agency of 500 people to change its ways has to have something to back it up. You are not going to change some old-line agency, business or government official with your good looks. Or with sweet talk.



8. If at all possible, try to meet your opponent on your own grounds. Or at least on neutral territory. Every time you have to go to him, sit in his office, wait for him to answer his phone, it puts you at a psychological disadvantage.

Remember when the Health Department man came to the community center? What can you learn from this?

9. Make your demands and threats softly but clearly. Make your demands and threats softly and clearly. Make your demands and threats softly and clearly.



Got it?

OK. Let's see you teach it to some of the people in the group you have helped to organize.

The Sample Letter and Sample Negotiation Agreement on the next two pages may give you some added ideas.

AN AGREEMENT

between

THE SCHOOL BOARD OF THE BIG TOWN

and

THE CITY-WIDE UNION OF NEIGHBORHOOD CLUBS

Date:_______________

The School Board agrees to:

1. Terminate Mr. James Foster and Mr. Cecil Atkins from the Kangaroo School Administration Staff.

2. Reinstate all students and former students who were expelled by Mr. Foster and Mr. Atkins to Kangaroo School or another school of their choice.

3. Reinstate and suspend all punishment of those young people who have participated in the student protest movement sponsored by the City-Wide Union of Neighborhood Clubs.

4. Recognize an official Student Personnel Review Board at each Junior and Senior High School. This board would consist of five (5) students to be elected each Spring at each Junior & Senior High School.

   Each SPR Board would review every present teacher, every potential teacher appointee for the next school year and every person being considered for promotion in the school. The School Board will not proceed on any personnel changes before reviewing the comments and recommendations of the SPR Board.

The City-Wide Union of Neighborhood Clubs agrees to:

1. Withdraw student strike and get all students back in school on __________(date).

2. Organize and supervise elections of SPR Boards in each Junior and Senior High School each Spring.

3. Maintain regular contact with the Superintendent of School on these and other problems.

Signed: ____________________ ____________________
For School Board For the CWUNC

78

THE POOR PEOPLES' UNION
Mountainvale, Kentucky

Governor Edward Brown
Kentucky State Capitol
Frankfort, Ky.

April 13, 1967

Dear Gov. Brown,

Last month a negotiating team from the Poor Peoples' Union met with your assistant to discuss three specific projects we would like to see undertaken in our County. We had hoped to meet with you, but we were told you were too busy.

Since your assistant did not understand our demands, we have talked with leaders of several other organizations of the poor in Eastern Kentucky. They have agreed to affiliate with the Poor Peoples' Union and join with us in our demands.

Representatives from these six organizationsand the Poor Peoples' Union would like to meet with you within seven days, so we may find out what you position is.

Sincerely,

Mary Lou Jones

Mary Lou Jones, President
THE POOR PEOPLES' UNION

Walter Wilhelm

Walter Wilhelm, President
Eastern Kentucky Association

Jake McKee

Jake McKee
Unemployed Fathers' Union

Jim Martin

Jim Martin
Lonesome Creek Association

Kathy Green

Kathy Green
United Teens Council

Ed Boone

Ed Boone
Council or Retired Miners

Martha Clarke

Martha Clarke
Mothers' Union

WHAT IS RIGHT?

Community Development Is:

1. The acquiring of visible installations (homes, apartments, stores highways, schools, churches, hospitals, sewage disposal plants, water systems, parks, and so on) that would supposedly improve local life.
2. The providing of better services for people (improved teaching in schools, social welfare, police and fire protection, library services, recreation supervision, and so on).
3. A raising of economic levels, usually average incomes, by improved farming practices, the introduction of new industry or tourist trade, and the acquiring of skill to be employed in the better-paid occupations.
4. A means for developing people to higher levels of competence, raising of good personal potentials through the experience of working together.
5. A means of conflict for the underprivileged to put pressure upon the powerful, in order to gain their rights or new privileges.
6. A means for enhancing the privileged position of those who already enjoy privilege. The local scene is improved in such a way as to benefit the wealthier and more powerful elements in a population.
7. A type of activity best adapted to rural life and towns or small cities.
8. A type of activity necessary in metropolitan areas, in city neighborhoods, urban renewal developments, urban area rehabilitation programs, and so on.
9. An activity that utilizes a social system called a community. This entity, "the community," makes decisions, assumes the initiative, can be called upon to participate in development.
10. An activity that is task-oriented. That is, it serves some job-to-be-done that is chosen to meet a specific need.
11. An activity that is propaganda-oriented. Its main purpose is to win people over to some good point of view or practice. CD is then thought of as a tool to serve good purposes.
12. A process that can be reduced to a formulalike outline and put into a handbook-to-be-followed.
13. A process that is free-flowing and unique to each social situation. Any outline of a development pattern must allow for flexibility, depending upon decisions made by the participants.

__________This material from WESTERN CENTER TRAINING MATERIAL

MEETING CHECKLIST

Check here when each step is done:

PREPARING FOR THE MEETING

____ 1. The purpose of the meeting is: ____________________

____

____

____

2. I want the following to happen when the meeting is over:

   a. I want the following information given to those attending the meeting: ____________________

   ____

   ____

   ____

   b. I want to receive the following information from those attending the meeting: ____________

   ____

   ____

   ____

   c. The following decisions should be made: ________

   ____

   ____

   ____

   d. Select people to do the following jobs: ________

   ____

   ____

   e. Other results: ____________________

   ____

   ____

Check here when each step is done:

3. The following people should be invited to the meeting:

__________ a. All of the citizens from the following area:

AREA	WHO WILL INVITE	Check here when invited

b. The following people should be invited:

NAME	ADDRESS	PHONE	WHO WILL INVITE	Check here when invited

Check here when
each step is done:

______ 4. a. The meeting leader will be:

____

b. The "back-up leader" will be:

____

______ 5. The meeting leader and back-up leader have been taught these planning steps.

______ 6. The leader's assistants have been chosen. They are:

NAME	ADDRESS

______ 7. The following agenda has been prepared:

Check here when
each step is done:

______ 8. a) The meeting will be held on ______________.
DATE

b) The meeting will be held at ______________.
PLACE

c) The meeting will start at ______________.
and will end at ______________. TIME
TIME

______ 9. The following guest speakers, films, books, charts, or other informational materials are needed and the following people will see that they are gotten:

SPEAKER OR MATERIAL	WILL OBTAIN	Check here when obtained

______ 10. a) The meeting notices will be made by: ________

______________ by ______________.
NAME DATE

b) Make meeting notices: ______________.

c) Give notices to the people responsible for deliver them: ______________.

d) Deliver all notices and invitations: ________.

______ 11. a) The following items are needed at the meeting and will be brought by the following people:

INTERPRETERS

NAME	ADDRESS	WHO IS RESPONSIBLE	Check when obtained

BASIC MATERIALS

ITEM	AMOUNT NEEDED	WHO IS RESPONSIBLE	Check when Obtained
Chairs			
Tables			
Ash Trays			
Speakers Podium			
Key to Room			
Blackboard			
Charts (Visual Aid)			
Tape Recorder			
Microphones-PA			
Directional Signs			
Hand-Outs			
Movie Projector			
Other			
SUPPLIES			
Name Tags			
Note Paper			
Newsprint or Flip Paper			
Chalk, felt, pens, etc.			
Pencils			
Thumb Tacks			
Tape			
Other			

REFRESHMENTS

ITEM	AMOUNT NEEDED	WHO IS RESPONSIBLE	Check when obtained
Water			
Coffee			
Snacks			
Meals: B			
L			
D			

b) If the press is to be invited, fill out 1, 2, 3,:

1. Press Invited________________________

2. Press Release________________________

3. Photographer________________________

c) The persons responsible for arranging and setting up the room are:________________________
________________________________.

______ 12. The staff has held its pre-meeting "get together" to make sure everyone is getting their job done.

LEADING THE MEETING

Keep These Suggestions in Mind:

Check Here
When Done

__________ I. DEVELOP A FEELING OF FRIENDSHIP AND COOPERATION

__________ II. GET GROUP SUPPORT OF THE AGENDA

__________ III. ENCOURAGE EVERYONE TO PARTICIPATE

__________ IV. HELP THE GROUP STICK TO THE AGENDA

__________ V. HELP THE GROUP REACH NECESSARY AND POPULAR DECISIONS

__________ VI. USE THE MEETING CHECKLIST

__________ VII. PLAN FOR THE NEXT MEETING

__________ VIII. EVALUATE THE MEETING

__________ IX. FOLLOW UP ON THE MEETING

DEALING WITH COMMON PROBLEMS

PROBLEM	POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS
1. The group does not seem to be interested.	a. Call a break.
	b. Tell the group that they don't seem interested. Ask them why or what they could do to become more interested.
	c. Look to see if a few people are dominating. If so, try to involve others.
	d. Encourage the group to make a decision and go on to the next topic.
	e. See if everyone understands what is going on. Maybe the group has gotten off the track.
2. Someone is talking too much.	a. Thank him for his remark and suggest that the group hear comments from others.
	b. If he continues to talk, tell him that he is keeping other people from having their chance to speak. Tell him that the sooner the others get a chance to speak, the sooner the group can give him another chance.
	c. If he still keeps talking, ask him why he is not willing to give others a chance.
	d. Finally, ask the group to decide on what should be done.
3. Someone is shy and finds it difficult to contribute.	a. Ask him what he thinks about the problem.
	b. Ask him for suggestions.
	c. Ask for his agreement or disagreement.
	d. Point out to the group that some people are finding it difficult to participate and ask the more talkative members if they couldn't do something to help others join in.

PROBLEM	POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS
4. The group is unable to reach a decision.	a. Ask the group what to do since a decision hasn't been reached.
	b. Suggest that further discussion and thought is needed. Come back to the problem later on in the agenda.
	c. Ask the group if a compromise is possible.
	d. Call for a majority vote.
	e. Assign a committee to study the problem and recommend a solution at the next meeting.
5. People talking on the side while the main conversation is going on.	a. Stop the main conversation and look at the people who are talking on the side. Ask if they are discussing something the whole group should know.
	b. Ask the group if they don't think it is best to have only one conversation going at one time.
	c. Ask one of the persons talking on the side what his opinion on the main topic is.
	d. If the side conversations continue, tell the people involved that they are distracting the rest of the group. Ask them to please stop.
6. Someone asks a question or makes a statement which is off the subject.	a. Thank him for his comment, but suggest that it be discussed at a later time.
	b. Ask him how his remarks are related to the agenda item under discussion.

AGENDA CHECKSHEET

Meeting of: ______________________ Date: __________ Time: __________ Place: ______________

Meeting Leader: ______________________ Address: ______________ No. of Persons Attending: ____

AGENDA ITEM	ACTION TAKEN OR DECISIONS MADE	RESPONSIBILITY FOR FOLLOW-UP	DATE OF REPORT BACK AND TO WHOM

TECHNIQUES OF COMMUNICATION IN THE SMALL GROUP

A member of a small group does not occupy a position of advocacy. In theory, at least, he does not seek to dominate the group or persuade its members. His goal is participation with others to achieve a common goal. Direct clash, characteristic of debate, or overt persuasive appeals may incline the group to conflict inimical to its goal. Effective communication in small groups calls for a speaking style somewhat different from that of the public platform or the lecture hall.

The small-group member has understanding as the goal of his speaking and listening. It is impossible to arrive at consensus unless each member understands what the others are talking about. For this reason, the speaker in a small group will strive to avoid partisan, persuasive, and emotion-laden statements. He will not attempt to overpower the group with his erudition or zeal but will express his ideas clearly so they can be easily understood with minimal effort by his listeners.

To avoid sounding like a verbal duelist, challenging others to combat, the discussant adopts a moderate voice and tone. A normal, conversational demeanor is the most potent style for a small group. Antagonisms between people can develop because of response to tone of voice as easily as they can from clash of ideas. It is not difficult to stir up unnecessary tension in discussion without attacking ideas directly. The close proximity of participants to each other makes them hypersensitive to the mannerisms of their associates. The muttered comment, facial grimace, or intolerant posture, relatively harmless to a platform speaker, can be most disconcerting to a speaker in a discussion group. The members of the group cannot be regarded as an "abstract audience." They must be considered as associates, partners, who will respond almost with hair-trigger rapidity to messages sent their way. At no time can members allow themselves to lose sight of their fellows as joint participants in a cooperative inquiry.

Since advocacy is not a goal, ideas should not be attacked. It is most helpful to the group is opposing sentiments can be expressed as questions rather than as frontal assaults. All members should be allowed the right of self-expression without feeling hidden threats. Sooner or later, if the discussion is to succeed, differences will have to be reconciled. For this reason, it is better to disagree as quietly as possible. This does not mean that potential critics must swallow their remarks and seek spurious harmony. It does mean that care must be taken to be sure of points of difference before critical remarks are made. Careful listening and calm questioning will permit members to separate out what they agree on before undertaking a consideration of differences.

A direct assult on a member will usually elicit a response in kind. The member who presented the idea will feel compelled to defend his opinion and himself. If questions are asked first to discover the meaning and implications of ideas, both speaker and critic can work together to fashion a statement at least partially acceptable to both before they begin to consider their areas of disagreement.

Individual members must also seek to avoid an aura of social dominance because of their participation. The group is not necessarily assisted by a great deal of talk. As a matter of fact, some groups are severely hampered because one person seeks to talk more than is reasonable. Those not as volatile and effusive will feel frustrated, then hostile, if they are denied the opportunity to speak. Avoiding egocentrism and adopting humility will help the talkative member to reduce his output somewhat. Because discussion is a co-operative effort, no member ought to be so vain as to assume that his comments are always more valuable than anyone else's.

The normally quiet person must recognize, also, that he has an obligation to present his ideas to the group. The group decisions are the results of the interaction of all of the members. The quiet person should not be overly self-critical as he evaluates his own ideas. They should be presented to the group for evaluation. It is not wise for him to sit back and decide that his remarks would not be worthwhile. That is a decision legitimately made by the group. In avoiding presentation of ideas, he may be denying the group important information or cogent opinion.

Of course, group members must attempt to stay on the subject. Digressions, while not particularly serious in themselves, serve to lengthen the group process. If each member is careful to direct his remarks with precision to the phase of the subject presently being considered, the progress of the group is expedited.

Good listening is vital to successful communication in discussion. The good listener will attempt to understand remarks in the context in which they are made. He will not jump to conclusions about what another member means. He will wait, instead, until the speaker is done, and if he feels hostility he will attempt to find out whether conflict is necessary by sensitive and intelligent questioning. Members should also be alert to nonverbal behavior of their colleagues. Facial expressions, hand gestures, nods of the head, and body motions communicate significant cues which, if responded to, would be very useful in understanding the feelings of other members. Often the shy, quiet person will try to express his opinions in the form of nonverbal cues. Response to these makes him feel more a part of the group and brings about his support for the consensus.

Above all, clarity in speaking should be sought. The skills required of the extemporaneous speaker can be applied to speaking in discussion. The ability to organize material rapidly and relevantly and to present it in a unified structure helps maximize understanding and cooperation. Statements should not be disjointed and cryptic. The discussion speaker must still present a unified whole with introduction, body, and conclusion, though in capsule form. The improvisation of coherent discussion contributions demends a great deal of skill and practice, but once achieved it is the group member's most valuable asset.

SOURCES OF TROUBLE IN COMMUNICATION IN SMALL GROUPS

There are several problems that seem to arise consistently to trouble the verbal interaction in small groups. Observance of a few simple cautions about communication helps members to avoid them.

1. It is not prudent to assume that each individual uses words precisely the same way. A serious problem in interpersonal communication arises from the assumption that words mean exactly the same thing to everyone. Phrases like "private enterprise,""the American way of life," "morality," or"virtue" can be defined in many ways. To understand what the speaker means it is necessary to question him carefully and seek answers that refer to things that can be observed, rather than abstractions and generalities. Contradicting a member prematurely leads to unnecessary hostility. It may well be that there is no real issue. This cannot be ascertained until vague words are made concrete. Then, if a dispute is necessary, it can revolve

around real disagreements. Discord about vague representations is almost impossible to quell. Understanding based on specifics helps to prevent this unnecessary disturbance of group progress.

2. Disproportionate involvement of personality in communication is dangerous. There is a tendency for us all to assume that someone else's ideas are invalid if they are not similar to our own. This attitude must be discarded in a discussion. Members must recognize that each comes from a different environment and background, and as a result their points of view on problems will be somewhat different. Agreement is possible, however, because, in general, there are more similarities among people's ideas than differences. If the temptation to spontaneous criticism of apparently divergent ideas can be suppressed, then it is possible to discover similarities first. Usually the main point of a contribution demonstrates that opinions are pretty much the same even though they have been derived from different sources and for different reasons.
3. There is a tendency, particularly in problem-solving discussions to jump to a consideration of conclusions before a thorough analysis has been made of the problem. Questions often seem transparently clear at the outset, only to have subsequent investigation reveal their complexity. A group can arrive at an unworkable solution if they are premature about their agreement on solutions. The desire to suggest conclusions should be resisted until it is obvious that the entire group is ready to move on. There should be sufficient information available to enable solutions to be satisfactorily evaluated. This should not occur until the group has made a thorough examination of facts and causes and has taken a good look at itself in order to discover its capability to solve the problem. This material will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.
4. Overformalization of process frequently subverts the value of the discussion process. Most people have had perfunctory experience with formal parliamentary procedure, and there is a natural tendency to attempt to apply those rules to discussion. Such formalization impedes spontaneous and direct contact between members. Conversation in discussion should be face to face without impediment. Remarks need not be addressed to the chairman, unless of course he is the object of the remark. The group should not have to resort to "points of order" and "points of information." Members may comment about procedure, make suggestions for improvement, and ask questions directly. The response to straightforward communication is usually equally straightforward. The parliamentary format is better suited to debate over adoption of a single proposition. Overly formal procedure tends to polarize the group and stir up conflict instead of co-operation. This does not mean, however, that the group can afford to be disorderly about agenda. Structure in the order in which ideas are discussed makes discussion more efficient and effective. It is formalization in communication behavior that impedes direct contact that must be avoided.
5. Emotional problems disrupt discussion. People often clash because they perceive threats to their needs and values. Part of this comes from their inability to distinguish between statements of belief and statements of facts. Evaluations like "Jones is a good governor" are not facts, no matter how factual they appear, and hence they can stir up considerable controversy. If each member displays some concern about distinguishing between facts and values, much personal threat can be avoided. For example, in response to the statement about Governor Jones, the

appropriate approach is a question designed to elicit information about things he has done. It is much easier to gain agreement on factual statements than about beliefs or attitudes. If each statement on belief can be traced back to the facts which led to its genesis, consensus is made easier.

It is unwise to stigmatize or label other members. Name calling can only hinder the discussion process. Generally, members should avoid evaluative statements, particularly those about other people. Critical comment should be confined to ideas expressed rather than behavior of the person who expressed them. It is equally unwise to presume that any difference of opinion warrants personal attack. Anger and partisanship arise when individuals assume that a question about their remarks constitutes an attack on themselves as persons. In general, proceeding quietly and calmly will help avoid the appearance of personal attack, but if a member does appear threatened, steps should be taken immediately to reduce his tension.

6. Each member ought to regard himself as having potential value to the discussion leader. His problems should be understood and his attempts to resolve conflict, to summarize, and to bring about balanced contribution should be assisted by all members. The more each member becomes problem-centered and thinks empathetically about the problems of leadership, the more likely it is that discussion will stay on the track.
7. In group discussions, each member should, insofar as possible, consider himself a group member rather than an autonomous individual. Introspective remarks are disconcerting to others. Communication in discussion must be mutual. It is not communication to other people, but communication with them. The goal is understanding. Each member should contribute all he can to the achievement of that goal.

GUIDES FOR LEVELING

The following ten suggestions will help the development and use of the techniques of leveling:

1. Focus on behavior rather than the person. It is important to refer to what a person does, rather than to comment on what you imagine he is. Thus, it is better to say that a person "talked a good deal in the meeting" than to call him a "loud-mouthed person."

2. Focus on observations rather than inferences. Observations refer to what you can see or hear of the behavior of another person, or its effect on you. Inferences are interpretations of the behavior ("You were defensive" or "You are a driver"). The sharing of inferences may be valuable, but it is important that they be so identified.

3. Focus on description rather than judgment. Describing is reporting what has occurred. Judging is evaluating in terms of good or bad, right or wrong, pleasant or unpleasant. Judgments come out of personal values, whereas description is more neutral.

4. Focus on description of behavior in terms of "more" or "less," rather than either-or. The more-or-less terminology stresses quantity, which is objective and measurable, rather than quality, which is subjective and judgmental. Thus, a person's participation may be anywhere from low to high, rather than good or bad. To think in terms of categories--for instance, authoritarian or permissive--rather than in terms of more or less easily leads to the conversion of a description into a casual interpretation: "He behaves this way because he is authoritarian."

5. Focus on behavior related to a specific situation--preferably to the here and now--rather than on behavior in the abstract. What people do is always tied in some way to time and place, and understanding of behavior

is sharpened by keeping it tied to time and place. Information is most meaningful when given as soon as appropriate after the observations or reactions occur.

6. Focus on the sharing of ideas and information rather than on giving advise. When ideas and information are shared, the receiver is freer to decide for himself, in the light of his own goals, in a particular situation and at a particular time, how to use the ideas and information. When you give advice you tell him what to do with the information, and thus restrict his freedom to determine for himself the most appropriate course of action. You also reduce his personal responsibility for his own behavior, since he is doing what someone else told him to do.

7. Focus on exploration of alternatives. The more attention given to the possible alternatives for the attainment of a particular goal, the greater the probability that the best solution to any problem will be found. It is all too easy to carry around a collection of set answers and courses of action, which we automatically apply to every problem that arises.

8. Focus on the "contract" that exists between persons in any significant relationship. The information provided should serve the needs of the recipient rather than the needs of the giver. Help and feedback should be given and perceived as an offer, not an imposition.

9. Focus on the amount of information that the person receiving it can use, rather than on the amount that you have and might like to give. To overload a person with information is to reduce the possibility that he may use what he receives effectively. When we give more than can be profitably used, we are actually satisfying some need of our own, instead of helping the other person.

10. Focus on what is said rather than why it is said. The aspects of information that relate to the what, how, when and where are observable characteristics. The why of what is said, however, goes from the observable to the inferred, and brings up questions of motive. To made assumptions about the motives of the person may prevent him from hearing or lead him to distort what you are saying.

Adapted from "Leveling with Others on the Job" by Robert B. Morton

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RESEARCH SKILLS FOR MENTAL HEALTH WORKERS

Written by

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A paper for circulation to the WICHE Community College Mental Health Worker Core Faculty

RESEARCH SKILLS FOR MENTAL HEALTH WORKERS

The purpose of this paper is not to discuss the pros and cons of including research skills in the mental health worker curriculum. Rather, this writer has assumed these skills to be essential for the "generalist". Consequently, the task at hand becomes one of identification of course content and its sequence and method of instruction. In undertaking this task, it becomes extremely evident that many questions go unanswered and more than a few issues remain contraversial. Therefore this paper becomes an initial attempt at integration and conceptualization instead of a detailed curriculum prospectus. It is desired that the readers' comments regarding the role of research skills in the mental health worker curriculum can be synthesized into this cursory review, thereby resulting in a comprehensive manuscript generated by many instead of a few.

The Southern Regional Education Board recently published a symposium report entitled: Roles and Functions for Mental Health Workers. Within this report thirteen possible work activities for various functional roles and levels of workers are presented. The role of "data manager" and its appropriate type of work activities for four levels of worker (roughly equivalent to eighth or twelfth grade degree, associate, baccalaureate and masters levels) documents the importance of research/data management skills within the mental health career ladder concept.

Overview of Research Skills

At the lower levels the research skills usually involve simple data collection, tabulation and analyses. The more advanced levels are characterized by the skills needed for program development, analysis and evaluation. Among these levels there is a variety of skills and knowledges which must be mastered. These can be grouped roughly into three levels of sophistication:

Level A

Elementary introduction to:
- scientific method
- data utilization in mental health
- graphical display of data
- sampling techniques
- methods of data collection
  - survey, census, interview questionnaire, etc.
- concepts of objectivity, reliability, validity, etc.
- research project planning, execution, reporting, etc.

Level B

Solid foundation in:
- elementary, intermediate and advanced statistical concepts and techniques
- unobtrusive measures
- research design
- epidemiology
- data management
- elementary program evaluation
- elementary computer applications

Level C

Advanced skills in:
- research methods
- program evaluation
- data utilization for budgets, program planning, etc., at agency, community, state and regional levels

Utility of Research Skills

Often asked is the question concerning the utilization of these research skills, e.g., "What can these skills do for me". An illustrative but noncomprehensive list of possible applications to program development have been set forth by Moore et. al. (1967):

DATA NEEDED FOR PLANNING LOCAL MENTAL HEALTH PROGRAMS

- I. Relevant population characteristics of the service area
- II. Existing mental health resources in service area
  - A. Identification of resources
  - B. Interrelationships and collaboration
  - C. Availability and capacity of resources
    - 1. Intake policies
    - 2. Staff characteristics
    - 3. Financing
    - 4. Facility characteristics
    - 5. Waiting list characteristics
- III. Need for local mental health services
  - A. Identification of probable high-risk families (vulnerable groups) - identified by events that happen to any one member of family
    - 1. Persons in normative crisis, e.g., retirement, entering school, death in family, new social roles, pregancy, etc.
    - 2. Persons in special crises, e.g., divorce, suicide attempts, religious conversion, loss of employment, emotional trauma, disaster, acute illness, hospitalization of children, illegitimate pregnancy, accidents, school dropouts, etc.
    - 3. Persons in prolonged stress situations, e.g., psychosis in family, neglect, unemployment, chronic illness, cultural deprivation, racial discrimination, etc.
    - 4. Persons entering social agency system (nonpsychiatric agencies) prior to diagnosis of psychiatric problems
      - a. public and private welfare and social agencies
      - b. Health agencies
      - c. Courts
      - d. Other
  - B. Identification of need as expressed by demands placed upon psychiatric agencies and services provided
    - 1. Referrals (demand)
      - a. Number
      - b. Source
      - c. Reasons (symptoms)
      - d. Other characteristics
    - 2. Admissions
      - a. Number
      - b. Diagnosis
      - c. Other characteristics
    - 3. Waiting list
      - a. Number
      - b. Source
      - c. Reasons (symptoms)
      - d. Other characteristics
    - 4. Services provided
      - a. Desirable services (Professionally defined)
      - b. Actual services given
    - 5. Outcome
      - a. Desirable outcome (Professionally defined)
      - b. Actual outcome including follow-up
- IV. Public capacity to meet needs
  - A. Readiness
    - 1. Public attitude re needs
    - 2. Public expression of need
      - a. Unstructured demand for new resources and services
      - b. Organized demand (mental health voluntary organizations)
  - B. Manpower
  - C. Funding
  - D. Government structure and mechanism
  - E. Community organization characteristics

Possessing research skills also enables an individual to evaluate the effectiveness of an agency's treatment and prevention programs. The overwhelming expense of providing comprehensive psychiatric services and increasing competition for the limited funds in governmental budgets is forcing granting agencies to carefully select their recipients. The efficacy of mental health treatment programs must be determined by empirical knowledge rather than subjective impressions. Those individuals who are paying for mental health services (i.e., the American public) have a right to receive the most effective and efficient care their money is able to procure. Mental health services can become effective and efficient only through program evaluation. However, program evaluation which does not result in program modification is insufficient. An adequate evaluative model not only must evaluate mental health services but also must provide for insuring whatever program modifications that may be needed to guarantee the high quality care the service recipients deserve (see Campbell, 1969, for a comprehensive review).

In addition, certain studies can be undertaken which might shed some light onto the efficacy of the current trends in the human services field. There is little if any empirical evidence that the basic hypotheses of the community mental health movement are tenable. These exists very little evidence that geographic location of inpatient treatment (e.g. in isolated state hospitals vs. community centers) bears any significant relationship to the outcome of treatment. No evidence exists as to whether the use of patient groups (ex-addicts, ex-alcoholics, etc.) is more or less beneficial than traditional psychiatric staff. Is community control and input advantageous to a program?

Issues for Consideration

Several questions seem to be quite germane to the task of providing research skills within the associate degree mental health worker curriculum.

What is the necessary level of research sophistication required? To be a "generalist" does one need more or less skills than those earlier presented in Level A. Current research by trained experimentalists in the human services area abounds with methodological errors in design, execution, and reporting. Will a little knowledge in research do more harm than good?

What method of instruction would be most effective? Typically, most statistics and research courses are very dull and seem irrelevant to practical application. How can these needed skills be taught in a meaningful manner? Can individualized programmed instruction or auto-tutorial methods be employed? Should research skills be taught in seperate courses or integrated within other courses?

What is the role of continuing education? The opportunity for an associate degree worker to further his skills in data management must be provided. This process may take the form of formal postgraduate courses, workshops of one or two days duration, or on the job inservice training, etc.

A few moments of consideration regarding the above material reveal the existence of many unsolved issues regarding the inclusion of research skills in the associate degree mental health worker curriculum. However, armed with the necessary data management skills, the associate degree mental health worker can provide valid services in the area of data management.

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Poverty Research and the Poverty Community

By

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Project Director

*Poverty Research and the Poverty Community

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> "... it is the persisting 'social fact' of this [poverty] literature that it not only involves a discussion by individuals who are successful about individuals who are not, but also representatives of unusually successful groups dissecting unusually unsuccessful ones."
>
> D. P. Moynihan (1969)

This quotation from a recent volume on poverty in the United States is an accurate description of our current situation concerning the kind of information we, the professors, have about the low-income groups we are trying to help. In making this presentation I find myself in an anomolous position as I come from what Moynihan identifies as one of our society's unusually successful groups. Despite or perhaps because of this, I would like to address the issue of developing research expertise and capability in the poverty community. It is necessary that we do this so that in the future we do not continue to fall victim to stereotyped beliefs that are so often reflected in the very research results we use in attempting to ameliorate the condition of the poor. In teaching a variety of introductory behavioral science courses to non-professionals in the mental health field I have been struck by the amount of material in our texts that indicates ignorance of the described population and substitutes cultural-racial stereotypes for basic knowledge.

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A recent example of this is the report on the effects of the so-called matriarchal structure of families in the black community. Whereas the result was interpreted in rather dire terms by the white researchers the Urban League in its discussion, while not sanguine, was not nearly so certain of a negative casual relationship. There is however, little question in my mind which interpretation will find its way into the text books. In this context it should be noted that Billingsley, a black social scientist, reports that "most black families are headed by men" at that "most of these men are still married to their original wives." (1970).

The extent to which a white social science interpretation of the black socio-cultural reality has served to damage the latter cannot be overemphasized. Statements such as "the fact that love, warmth, hygiene, education and family stability are absent for most Negroes. (Etzkowitz and Schaflander, 1969).", is not only errant nonsense it serves to perpetuate the very conditions that the researchers ostensibly wish to eliminate. Interpretations based upon observations of incompletely understood or totally misunderstood phenomena are hardly confined to the research on the black community. The Spanish speaking cultural groups and the American Indians when they have not been simply ignored have had their social customs and life styles mangled by the white social scientist to the point of unrecognition. We have produced an entire literature on American minority subcultures that has all too often served to reinforce racist stereotypes and has even in some instances invented new ones. Behind the banner of objectivity American social science has served up a platter of misinformation that has then been used by policy makers in ways that has exacerbated an already tragic situation.

The results of white social science research no doubt have been unintended. The consequences are not seen as emanating from hostility but rather from ignorance and arrogance. American social scientists, using their own background and experience, have tried to bring order, coherence and understanding to phenomena that are outside their experience. Unlike the careful anthropologist they interpret their observations in the context of the majority society even when this standard of values and experience may be inappropriate and lead to faulty conclusions. It is just this bias that results from lack of long-term experience and sensitivity to the mores and norms of the studied group that has led to the unfortunate set of circumstances that we are presently in.

It is not, I maintain, our research methods per se that are responsible for our predicament but rather the manner in which the data has been interpreted. There is, furthermore, an allied difficulty that has led us astray. Unintended cultural bias has often resulted in a selection of areas of study that have not always been the most profitable. To decide to study family patterns or child rearing practices may be laudable, but one needs knowlege of general social norms in order to make an intelligent selection of the particular variables to examine. The expectation that one can approach an individual family in an unknown culture and arrive at sound conclusions results more from arrogance than from an appreciation of the difficulties involved as any experienced cultural anthropoligist knows. This is not to say that it is impossible for outsiders to investigate another culture. Certainly, Gunnar Myrdal's major work represented a significant landmark in the understanding of black America but Myrdal is a European and relatively unaffected by majority American biases. To be sure, there have been valuable contributions made by white American social scientists but as Billingsley (1970) notes "the best studies of black families have been done by black scholars..." If the same cannot be said for other minorities it is due to the fact that they have not yet been enabled to produce a sufficient number of social scientists to represent them.

It is this last point that I would now like to discuss. If we can agree that there are, at the very least, advantages to be gained from having minority social scientists involved in researching their own people how can we best go about preparing these individuals? This is an important question that has not been given sufficient attention. In the past few years there has been a remarkable growth in the number of human service agencies that are using community people in the role of non-professional adjuncts to their professional staff. Along with this expansion has come a proliferation of college curricula designed to train this new group of workers to function in their agencies. From my experience there have been several things wrong with both the jobs and the curricula as they have evolved across the country. In most instances the "new" jobs were not new at all especially not in the "New Careers" sense intended by Grant, Pearl, and Riessman. All too often agencies have created positions as sops to restless communities and the jobs consisted of tasks that the professionals were not interested in or could not be bothered doing. Education, in these instances, when there is any, consists of narrow training with no transferability to either other schools or other jobs. Even in those cases where a coalition between an enlightened community and a cooperative agency resulted in meaningful work rarely has this led to truly creative use of the aptitudes brought to the job by the new employees. What has not often been recognized is that "New Careerists" are not merely aspirants for professional positions but rather have unique knowledge and experience that should be used in new ways so that more effective service may be rendered. Educational institutions in this latter instance must not merely open classes in general education with a few specialty classes thrown in but must attempt to provide instruction that will enable these student-workers to transform their knowledge into action programs that will benefit their communities. This requires that the schools design courses that contain material often conceived of as being at the upper division or graduate level. To fulfill this new educational mission does not entail watering down course content but rather devising ways of providing the necessary background for the student so that he can understand and apply the knowledge that he is gaining. We have for too long hidden behind a shield of pre-requisities that are often blocks to educational progress rather than stepping stones to knowledge. We need to accept the fact that we are able to provide instruction out of the time dishonored traditional sequence. I am not calling for an end to either prerequisites or scholarship, quite the opposite. It is time that the curriculum is examined and that we eliminate courses offered out of a sense of duty to history and that we institute courses that have meaning, either theoretical or practical, for modern man.

To translate this discussion into a practical application I would like to examine a proposed curriculum for teaching non-professionals basic social science research skills. To procede with this I must first describe the process through which we determined the skills the workers needed and thus the actual course content. The Institute for Health Research (IHR), with which I am associated, is currently engaged in a functional job analysis project in the Santa Clara County, California Mental Health Division. Our work has consisted of examining all of the tasks currently being performed by all levels of workers. Then, according to scales which code the tasks by level of complexity and by the freedom or discretion allowed a worker to carry out a task we are able to develop a series of position classifications from the entry job to that of the Director. The resulting cluster of tasks at each level contain a wide variety of activities and even the entry level workers are engaged in complex pursuits, albeit under close supervision. The problem facing the agency at this stage is how to provide effective and meaningful training in tasks that heretofore have been taught only at the highest educations levels. The answer to this lies, I believe, in a cooperative effort between the service agency and local colleges, particularly the community colleges. By linking the expertise of the personnel in the particular human services delivery system with the educational design and accreditation capability of the educational system a package beneficial to both groups would result. In the case of the Santa Clara County Mental Health Services and San Jose City College progress has been achieved that will result in the near future in a curriculum for non-professionals that will be unique in its design and in its capability for effective training. One segment of this proposed package is a two course series in research and evaluation techniques.

When the tasks had been isolated and restructured even the entry level had some responsibility for carrying out the agency's research and evaluation function. With recognition of some of the issues discussed above it was felt that these employees would be able to provide significant input into this area if they were trained to do so. Using the cluster of tasks proposed at the lower levels it is a relatively straight forward process to design the specific course content. It was assumed that the students would not know any of the basics of research methodology and the course is aimed at introducing them to this method of problem solving. The first of the two courses introduces the student to uses of information to solve specific problems which arise in planning delivery of mental health and other human service system services. The scientific method and approach to problem solving is explained and discussed so as to familiarize the student with such concepts as objectivity and validity. The basic concepts involved in planning and conducting research and evaluation projects are presented. The student is trained in the skills of collecting data by means of observation and other "unobtrusive" methods, as well as interviewing techniques. An objective orientation to data collection is emphasized, and skills are developed to minimize bias. The student is trained to compile and summarize data and to prepare the data for analysis. The course includes instruction in test administration and scoring as well as protocol for working with research subjects and testees. While this description may appear to be ambitious, it does not represent any more than is expected of advanced students in the behaviorial sciences who have not had any direct experience in research. Unlike the traditional offerings this course has specific objectives that the student is expected to put into practice. He, unlike the full-time student is working in an agency that is involved on a daily basis with a consumer public and thus the nonprofessional student-worker has a unique opportunity to learn by doing. Specifically, the course aims to prepare the student to interact competently with a research team in planning and conducting research projects. He is expected to understand and be familiar with research methods so that he can select instruments and schedule work in accordance with the research team's capability. He will be able to make arrangements for subjects to participate in the project, greet the subjects, administer the tests, and conduct observations and interviews in order to collect data. Furthermore, he will know how to compile and summarize research data in order to prepare it for analysis. In general, the successful student upon completion of the course will have mastered the concept and purpose of a research project and understand the basic principles of the scientific method and its contribution to the planning of the delivery of mental health services. What is aimed for is for the student to have an appreciation for the manner in which information gleaned from the community and from the agency's own practitioners may be used to refine and change the character of the service delivery system. The entry level worker has been selected because he knows and understands his community and with a basic knowledge of research techniques it is hoped that he will be able to inform an investigatory team about what information is needed and how best to go about getting it. This type of input is vital if the agency is to be able to accurately assess its effectiveness. This need has become more apparent of late since both the State of California and the Federal government are now requiring evaluation of all services.

To concretize the expected output of such a course as described above, an example from the area of drug abuse service will be used. Herion addiction has become a major health problem as well as political issue within the recent past. Despite its prevelance we still know surprisingly little about how to go about delivering effective treatment to the population of users. Due to the nature of the problem and the fact that use is illegal it is virtually impossible for mental or public health practitioners to travel freely among the addict group. It is conceivable, however, that an ex-addict working for a health department could gain access to this group and bring back information useful in the delivery of treatment services. It would be necessary, however, that the individual who would serve in this capacity be trained to know how to gain the relevant information required to change the pattern of service delivery. In other words, it is not sufficient that the individual be familiar with the population for he must also have an ability to obtain the type of information that would be useful to those planning services. To continue the example of drug abuse, health agencies are also concerned about ways in which to prevent the continued spread of addiction. Questions relating to etiology and early identification of those members in the population who are at risk can, perhaps, best be answered by trained community members who are concerned and knowledgable about the problems of their own neighborhoods. The point here is not that we can expect these new employees to design research programs, but rather that their unique life experiences and their community contacts can be utilized in ways that can provide information about their environment and thus result in treatment and prevention programs that are in tune with the needs of the people.

As it is expected that all non-professionals will be engaged in program evaluation and research, at least to some extent, the first course in data collection is a required one. It is hoped that some number of employees will be interest in continuing their education in this area and an elective course has also been developed.

In this we hope to expand the skills and knowledge of the student so that he can perform more independently in the research field. This advanced offering will provide the student with practical knowledge in the design and direction of a research project. He will also be instructed in methods of analyzing data, including ways of statistical treatment so that collected data is amenable to interpretation. Using practical issues arising from service delivery problems the student will be taught how to interpret data so as to improve programs. He will be trained in the process of defining a specific problem in research terms and in constructing research project activities which will produce specific information which can be useful in solving that problem. As with the introductory course the emphasis here is on the practical application of the theoretical principles involved. There is certainly no lack of rigorous content and the outline resembles that of many graduate school courses in this area. Specifically, upon completion of the course, the student will be able to analyze data according to sound statistical requirements, including, the use of tests of statistical significance. In addition the student will have learned how to use results of tests of statistical significance in interpreting findings. He will be able to plan and design a research project including the description of time frames, task assignments for a project team and the allocation of resources needed to complete the work. Furthermore, the successful student will be able to translate the results and, as part of a planning team, provide inputs for making decisions concerning the delivery of services to people. In general, upon completion of the course we can expect the student to be able to translate a problem concerning delivery of services to people into a specific problem that can be approached by a research project. He would also be able, using his research results, to formulate detailed proposals for program planning as well as construct rationales for program changes and the use of innovative methods. We are attempting here to produce a much higher level paractitioner than in the course described above. As this is an elective the interest and aptitude of the students should be high. Furthermore, these students will have had considerable experience both in the agency and in the educational setting before they would be eligible to take the course.

As was done earlier a specific example, also from the field of drug abuse will be used to describe the type of activity that can be expected from an individual who has completed the advanced course. In the previous example the employee was merely expected to be familiar with the basic principles of data collection and be able to provide usable information to the research team. In this case, however, it is expected that he would be able to identify a problem area and design a study to get information to enable a solution. Due to his knowledge of the community the student-worker might be aware of a particular population that is at risk and needs services. Using his research expertise he could now design a study that could isolate those variables that are contributing to this condition. He could then suggest methods of providing services to this group and perform an evaluation study to determine if the instituted services actually had a salutory effect on the population. In this instance we see a welding of knowledge gained from the employee's pre-employment life experience, his clinical job experience and his specialized education and training.

Before concluding this aspect of the discussion it is necessary to make some mention of educational methods. The non-professional who attends school is often seen as a drop-out who has poor learning skills and low aptitude for college work. Whereas the vast majority of these individuals may indeed have dropped out of high school this, in all likelihood, is due at least as much to the school environment as to any individual or socio-cultural factors. It need hardly be stated here that our public elementary and high schools have utterly failed the poor and minority populations of the United States. I and others engaged in educational programs with non-professionals have found that success experiences in the classroom and out are sure motivators for further success. It sould be emphasized that success should not and need not be at the expense of a sound curriculum but rather can result from experience with an interest in the student population. Lectures, discussions, text books, audio-visual materials, tests and papers are perhaps as much a part of these classes as they are in more traditional settings. There are, however, a couple of differences that I deem crucial. First, these students are actively engaged in a work setting that enables them to apply many of the principles and theories that they learn in the classroom, and second when the instructors have been chosen with care and especially, though not necessarily, from among the professionals within the employing institution the classes have effected excellent results for both students and agency. It is also no doubt supportive when the students are mature and in a setting that provides advancement as a reward for continuing education. It should further be noted that, for the most part, these employees are not a random selection from their communities but rather a carefully chosen group on the basis of their intelligence, sensitivity and motivation. It may thus be concluded that classes consisting of these individuals need be in no way inferior to the "normal" college class.

One further issue needs to be explored in regard to the development of courses and curricula for this group. The short history of educational programs and working conditions for non-professionals consists almost entirely of non-accredited training so that these employees have neither work nor educational mobility. It is, I believe, both to the advantage of and the responsibility of the educational institutions to ensure that classes taught under their auspices are both academically sound and transferrable to other colleges. The set of conditions that lead to the circumstance whereby a student, having spent considerable time and energy accruing credits only to discover that the institution to which he wishes to transfer refuses acceptance of a major portion of them is inexcusable. If standards of academic excellence are maintained it requires only commitment and persistence on the part of college officials to ensure acceptance of credits earned in the community college by the four year colleges and universities. These comments, of course, are not addressed to those offerings which are clearly remedial in nature or are of such limited scope that they do not properly constitute an acceptable body of knowledge. This issue does of necessity require that the colleges plan their curricula with care and forsight and provide extraordinary counseling services for these students.

It is necessary in this context to turn our attention to the issue of evaluation of the effectiveness of educational programs aimed at these students. In the traditional setting student assessment is almost always within the context of the classroom. In the case of the student-worker the payoff is not so much his class performance as his ability to translate his knowledge of theory into practice in his job situation. To evaluate teacher effectiveness and student performance it is thus important that the two institutions set up cooperative procedures so that both get the information that they require. For the research courses outlined in this paper it will be proposed that final performance evaluation be postponed until a period of several months after the conclusion of the class. This is to allow the student an opportunity to apply the concepts and skills he has been taught in an actual field setting and thus to experience the value of his training while at the same time permitting the school to assess his progress. As not all courses have either short or even long term practical applications this method will not be feasible in all cases. It is, however, becoming increasingly evident that the utilization of work study and work experience types of education are valid learning vehicles. It is not a far step from this to the combination of classroom theory and field practice as is suggested here. Evaluation is in any case a sensitive and difficult issue. Colleges and human service agencies do not often have either the same goals or standards in their expectations of their charges performance. All institutions, furthermore tend to be quite jealous of their rights in this issue and resent intrusion by outside interests. Having worked in both settings I feel that at present neither has valid measures of performance. There are some new and interesting developments in mental health agencies involving specific performance standards that are derived from functional job analyses that promise to provide a more rational evaluation system. What long range effect this will have and what relationship it might engender with an educational institution providing training for such an agency is impossible to predict at this stage. That it is possible for a college and a human service delivery system to work together to identify and solve problems has been demonstrated by the productive relationship between San Jose City College and the Santa Clara County Mental Health Services.

In this paper I have attempted to explicate the need for the development of numbers of community people to be trained in the skills of research and evaluation. Almost all of our present sources of information about the poverty and minority communities come from research carried out by social science professionals who have little direct or long-term experience in the life styles of the groups they have studied. This has resulted in much misinformation, incorrect interpretation of data and neglect of important variables. There is a potential source of both theoretical and practical knowledge in the group of employees hired by human service agencies that come from these communities. It is in my experience both possible and practicable to train these individuals in the necessary skills to carry out research programs. This would require an alliance between the educational institution and the agency to develop effective programs. The need for such efforts is clear from both an examination of the available literature on poverty or from a visit to the nearest barrio or ghetto. It is within the province of the educational institutions to use its capability to effect change and to ensure that the schooling afforded its students will permit them the necessary educational mobility.

Inquiry as Research

By

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INQUIRY AS RESEARCH

by: Keith Leafdale

Recent workshops sponsored by the Western Interstate Commission on Higher Education (WICHE) regarding community college curriculum development in the mental health field have raised the question of training research methodology at that level. The discussions generally reflect graduate level experience with research strategies, sophisticated statistics, sampling techniques, etc. More specifically, the discussions include the question, "How can THAT be taught at the two year college level?"

It occurred to this workshop participant that the experience Navajo Community College (Fuchs, 1972) has been having with a course labeled "Inquiry Circle" is relevant to the problem.

That experience now can be said to encompass three years, although at first the title was Transfer Core rather than Inquiry Circle. It has been a part of each full-time on-campus student's (usually approximately 250 to 300 students are enrolled each semester) curriculum during that time. The program has experienced wide variations during the three years, but has been a part of the course requirement for the Associate of Arts (AA) degree at all times.

At first, during the 1969-70 term, 9 credit hours were required of each student in the AA program each semester. During the 1970-71 year, 24 credit units were listed in the NCC catalog under the requirements for the degree. Currently, 6 credit units are required, and a number of students enroll for more than the required 6 hours using the credits as electives.

Currently, the course description reads (1972-73 catalog):

The Inquiry Circle is a specific device designed to help students achieve the goals of the Arts and Science program. A student may bring to an Inquiry Circle any question, problem, difficulty or conflict he would like to resolve. It may be a question about his relationship with other people, about his values and beliefs, about his view of the world, about the reservation, about his career, about other tribes, about life in Russia or about Navajo education. There is no question which cannot become the subject of an investigation if the student so desires.

The investigation may take the student into chapter meetings, schools, the College Library, laboratories, community agencies; it may lead him to books, magazines, newspapers, recordings; to writing reports, to talking with members of the faculty, fellow students, sometimes with one another, sometimes with a faculty member.

As the student deals with the problem in which he is interested he will develop the ability to inquire and, at the same time, he will acquire new information, concepts and principles. As the student wrestles with his problem, he will be led to new and deeper questions and to related subject areas. His understanding of the inter-relationship of human knowledge will be deepened, his ability to use information concepts and principles will be strengthened and his insight into the character of human knowledge will be increased.

Before registering for one of the several Inquiry Circles scheduled each semester, the student is urged to consult with Inquiry Circle leaders to determine which section would best suit his purposes.

Although Inquiry Circle is required only for a very small portion of the student's program during the first two semesters, there is no limit to the number of Inquiry credits he may take during any semester he is enrolled at NCC. Indeed, it is hoped that the experience will be so stimulating and rewarding that students will elect the work in Inquiry Circles for a substantial part of each semester.

The amount of credit earned for work done in Inquiry Circles and the discipline to which it is allocated will be determined after the student has completed the semester.

During the Fall of 1970, instructors of NCC's Inquiry Circle compiled the following statement. It was a bit of a sales pitch for the students and College community.

COMMENTS ON THE INQUIRY CIRCLE BY INQUIRY CIRCLE INSTRUCTORS

Most American colleges and universities are presently grappling with the very difficult problem of responding to student demands for relevant and meaningful education. The lethargy of educational institutions and entrenchment of vested interests will guarantee the failure of many of these attempts at educational reform. Navajo Community College has started at the very forefront of educational relevance, thus joining the company of a small group of institutions experimenting with some of the most advanced thinking of this era.

Two of the most deminant ideas of the new thinking are:

1. The teacher has a primary function the nurturing and awakening of the intellect of his students though example, guidance, and intellectual give-and-take.
2. The student should be primarily concerned about developing - with the help of his teachers - the skills, habits, and methods of inquiry that will enable him to individually and actively make use of the inherent powers of his mind for the rest of his life.

The Inquiry Circles are based upon these two sides.

Though each of us will use different methods in our Inquiry Circle, we intend to make every effort to get your brains going, to turn you on to what all of you can do, and to help you learn how to use these gifts for the rest of your lives.

COMPARISON OF INQUIRY CIRCLE AND TRADITIONAL CLASS

Traditional Class	Inquiry Circle at NCC
Teacher	Teacher
Lecturer (giver of information). Talks for whole class period.	Resource person, helps students work out individual or group programs of study, based on students' own interests and questions.

Decides what class will do.	Partners in the learning process, in selection of problem(s), and, in gathering the information needed to solve the problem(s).
Classes are large.	
Students get little individual attention.	Supports student in development of individual project(s), and is continuously available for consultation.

Student	Student
Sits there; maybe listens.	Through consultation with teacher, works out a program of study that is based on his own interest(s).
Student not given chance to express opinions, ideas, likes and dislikes.	Given opportunity to express his ideas, likes, dislikes, etc., through frequent meetings with teachers and other members of his Inquiry Circle.
Class does what teacher says (maybe)	Student and teacher decide the direction the program of study will take and what the goals of the study will be.
Teacher too busy to talk to student - but, student doesn't care - teacher usually talks at him; rather than with him anyway.	Small group work - close teacher-student relationship. This should help lessen anxiety and encourage students to give opinions, share their ideas, and communicate more confidently with one another.
Student feels he don't learn too much; like about course materials or how to solve problems.	Teacher will make special effort to be available to individual students.

The Transfer Core of 1969-70 produced another emphasis, being somewhat of a interdisciplinary group attack on a series of problems. Early, that year, wide differences appeared in the approach individual instructors took in handling their Core groups (there was also a Prep Core for pre-college students). Some groups met as such, in groups. Others used a combination of group sessions and individual conferences. One instructor emphasized individual student - instructor meetings.

These differences continue in the styles of Inquiry Circles, although the trend has been toward individual Inquiry conferences rather than group meetings. The range of variation has been wide, from group to individual meetings, from 36 required credit hours to 6. More variations will be referred to below.

Why the large variations? An experienced researcher might hope that we could provide well planned studies involving control groups, follow up data, pre and post test data, and careful manipulation of selected variables. Data has been and is being collected, of course. However, the variations have emerged for less formal reasons. Those reasons seem to this participant to be:

1. The wide differences in personality and teaching styles the instructors involved.
2. The necessity for instructors (who usually themselves experienced only very traditional university environments) to experiment in a search for effectiveness with particular students with particular techniques, and with a host of other exigencies. (NCC enrolls disadvantaged

disadvantaged and others from primarily Indian but also Black, Chicano Foreign and Anglo groups), this freedom to experiment is probably essential (Arthur Combs, 1965).

3. The differences between groups of students (each Inquiry instructor now takes on about 10 students in that course each semester). The range from acculturated to traditional Indian life styles present at NCC is indicative of this variation.
4. The very fluid nature of the College, Navajo owned and administered and on the Navajo reservation, is also a factor. It has gradually increased the input of its Indian faculty and staff in all decision processes, with the chairmanships and effective majorities of all standing committees and councils now being Indian. Rather than apologize for the changing nature of the College, a major priniciple of course development will be based upon this phenomenon especially for programs primarily oriented to specific indigenous minority groups (Charles Silberman, 1964), such as those programs promoted by WICHE.

Specific Instructor Approaches to Inquiry Circle

Instructors have described their approaches to their Inquiry Circle in varied ways. A summary of those approaches follows:

At the beginning, 15 instructors were responsible for "Transfer Core" student groups. Equal rights were stressed for students and faculty. By-laws were considered for the groups. Students participated in decisions such as those involving evaluation, field trips, and course philosophy.

One instructor's group focused upon education. Visits to schools were made. Specific cases and examples from College experience were discussed which required some movement into educational psychology. Both weekly short papers and a term paper was required of each student.

Another instructor described his goal in the Core group as "...an educational program which would give my students a rounded general education and introduction to requirements expected at larger institutions." In spite of a wide range of subject matter interests, that instructor's group met in group meetings only.

A third instructor that year divided his group into interest areas. A break down of the resulting schedule looked like this: Fourteen students meet only individually with the instructor at scheduled times at least once a week. One team of two students, one group of three students and two groups of four students also met for weekly sessions with the instructor.

The students of nursing met in a special group focused upon the pre-determined subject area, but with opportunity to select individual subjects from that field for study. The instructor's aims were described as developing independent study capability and improvement of the English language skills required in handling the professional literature. Field experiences, individual study and personal journal records of experiences were inter-related in individual student instructor meetings. Later, nursing Inquiry groups were described as basically approaches to problem solving.

Another instructor indicated that his group needed to move more to a class like situation as work on two projects seemed to lag otherwise. The instructor expressed the aim of "getting students into a university successfully in the future."

Moving from early experience in the Core groups, instructors began to alter some of their approaches.

One instructor wrote "Last semester taught me that most of our students cannot do solitary research. They need constant support...the group project will be the main effort."

Later, this instructor refined his approach to emphasizing a series of realizable weekly goals. He has moved back and forth regarding individual versus group sessions.

Other instructors observed that many Navajo students seemed uncomfortable in discussing tentative and unfinished ideas in front of groups, but more at ease when meeting individually with the instructor. Individual meetings seemed advisable until later in a project.

An increased awareness of wide individual differences among the students emerged. Inquiry Circles included affluent anglos, urban and militant Blacks, very traditional Navajos speaking English as a second language, urban Navajos, and Indians of a dozen different tribes, including Alaskan and South American. Reflecting this experience, one instructor wrote:

> Inquiry Circle
>
> I seem to be blessed each semester with people who differ significantly in interests and academic preparation. While I acknowledge readily the benefits of a group experience, it has seemed advisable to break down the block of 15 into small units (composed of one person, or two or three people). When students do feel free to choose problems to investigate, the resulting array of topics is far-ranging and fascinating. If someone wanted to study medieval art, for example (this happened last year), he could do so--at his own pace and unencumbered by embarassment.
>
> During the first week or so of the semester, I encourage my students to select two problem areas (each of which will be a 3 credit project). Students may elect to work with others on a project of joint interest, or work alone in an area. I ask them to choose things that really interest them, and to not limit themselves by what they have thought of as "academic" subjects. We then set up one hour per week per project to come in and discuss and consider progress that is being made.
>
> Clearly, some students need very little guidance, while others, especially new students, often need quite a little assistance and direction. What is important (and frequenly rather difficult) is to take the student from where he is--and to have him be working on things that are important to him.
>
> From this foundation, it seems to me, there are numerous advantages which may be reaped. A student may gain experience in defining a problem, identifying methods of attacking a problem, attempting to solve a problem through use of a variety of experiences. He may improve his oral and written expression, and may clarify and define possible

> vocational interests. He has an excellent opportunity to try to find at least partial answers to some of the old questions: Who am I? Where am I going? Where do I belong?
>
> Here are some of the areas (labeled generally) that my students are exploring this semester: becoming a high school teacher, the Navajo tribal council, the purposes of NCC, Black Power, physical education in a Navajo school, Navajo adolescence, the Low Mountain Community, sports as seen through fiction, the Navajo police, problems in 20th century American history, the trader in Navajo society, writing my biography, values of NCC students, becoming a coach, the differences among mission, community, BIA, and public schools, Navajo religion and Christianity, crime in the cities, and capitalism vs. communism.

Additional refinements emerged. Inquiry Circle instructors developed more specific approaches to the problem of helping a student identify an interest. Some became adept at responsive listening to the student with very little sharing of their (the instructors) own interests. Others began by reviewing first their own interests (academic and wide ranges of avocational interests), and thus striving to both be "real" and to model the behavior of "becoming interested."

Other instructors supplemented one of the above approaches by reviewing projects completed by former students of Inquiry. These experiments with the drawing-out-and-identifying-student-interests will lead to a major principle of Inquiry as Research below.

Other specific approaches developed by individual instructors have been; an emphasis on Inquiry based upon consideration of a students' personal plans for the future, a more Summerhillian concept of simply being available to students and active in (in this case) the drafting room creating designs to fill actual needs, emphasis on critical thinking about current issues, emphasis on critical reading, emphasis on research strategies including use of library resources, and emphasis on surveying aspects of reservation area economic reality.

Student Projects

Strategies of inquiry used by the students have included both structured and non structured interviewing, questionnaires administered on and off campus and in and out of school settings, library reading, field trips, case studies, creative writing, more literary reviews of books, critical reviews of news media, and even some statistical analysis of accumulated data.

A partial and representative listing of student projects would include: (Specific titles of papers are underlined, while other projects are less formally summarized.)

Poverty in America - a critical reading and review of fiction about Indians.

Several projects involving visitation to demonstration schools.

Law Enforcement - an analysis of a President's Commission report.

Drug Use - Questions of legalization.

Art, religion and government in different societies.

The Coming of the Russian Revolution

The South as a Separate Entity

The Protestant Catholic clash in Ireland.

Recent Fiction and Sports.

Civil Liberty, Poverty and American government

Art, Progress and Change in Medieval and Renaissance Europe.

Current music.

Changes in the University

20th Century American Warfare

History of Gallup Inter-Tribal Indian Ceremonial

Planning for Rural Industry

Indian Education

Problems of Black Mesa

Soil Conservation

Round Worms in Horses

Education at Rough Rock Demonstration School

The Black Athlete in America - A study of racism in Sports Illustrated

Peyote (studies based on readings and studies based upon interviews)

The Beauty Way Ceremony (interviews)

Trends from Sheep to Cattle Raising - (an attitude questionnaire given to 70 high school students.)

Many Farms High School Students and College Plans - (A questionnaire approach).

A study of HEW, Navajo Housing Projects, and tribal control of tribal lands.

Comparison of Navajo medicine men and psychiatry in interpretation of dreams - reading and interviews.

Problems of Adolescent girls - readings and personal observations.

Preparations in anticipation of cross cultural encounters-interview of selected persons with specific cross cultural experience.

The above list is incomplete, of course, but represent the wide range of topics specific instructor - student combinations can produce.

Instructors, at the end of a term and/or completion of a project, describe the students work in Inquiry in terms of general discipline or subject area for inclusions on transcripts. Descriptive materials are filed so that four year institutions can obtain elaboration of any Inquiry experience to facilitate transfer. NCC students have transfered successfully with Inquiry credits.

Principles of Research

Several basic problems related to the teaching of research strategies can be abstracted from the experience summarized above.

1. Flexibility of instructional design. The curriculum, must be very very flexible in design, especially at first. This is necessary to enable the programs, curricula and specific courses to be responsive to the voice of the indigenous community (at NCC, the Navajo indians) as that voice increasingly asserts itself. It is especially easy for experts from the dominant society, operating in the dominant language, to truly and almost accidentally dominate. This must be reviewed as especially true in a matter such as research design, where the shop talk of the field is somewhat esoteric and specialized.
2. Instructors must experiment! A course in research methodology for a minority clientele at the community college level will not be comparable with the graduate courses most probably expereinced by the instructor. He must cast about freely to find his best and most productive style in the very strange and new situation. This may be as true for a well

degreed and acculturated member of the specific ethnic minority as for a non-member.

3. The first stage of emerging student growth in research skills may be at the level of a fragile, tenuous, suspicious, halting experiment with identifying a real interest. Furthermore, the idea that a "class" might be a legitimate place to pursue an area of real interest may be downright unbelievable. Once an excitement is generated, however, questions of validity of data sources, and strategies for "finding out more" can emerge without strain.
4. Courses more specifically related to, for example, statistics, can be useful after the perception of need for the material is generated. Before that point, such a course may deaden further the students faith in the possible relevance of the course.
5. A wide range of alternatives (interest groups, seminars, workshops) should be tried in the place of each specific traditional styled course that seems to be called for. This experimentation must, to some extent, be renewed for each group of students, for each individual student and for each instructor each year.

This writer, a participant in the WICHE discussions and an instructor of Inquiry Circle at Navajo Community College, is almost surprised by the interest in research design emerging in three students this current semester. One student has a computer print out with f and t tests of 50 items on 70 returned (nearly 100%) questionnaires! We haven't conducted a course in statistics. However, the usefulness of some test of significance has obviously been experienced. Another student has been occupied with problems of the standardization of interviews. Another with a simple problem of depicting frequencies of various responses. None of these students set out to study these methodological questions. They are simply raising questions of interest and importance to them and going where that leads.

A question arises in the case of a special program recruiting and selecting students with a high apparent interest in a field of study before enrollment. Such a program might be, for example, a mental health worker training program. Would these students have enough motivation and an adequate perception of the usefulness of research methodology to skip the open Inquiry approach? Each program will have to answer such questions anew (hopefully with indigenous community input). This writer would advise a high degree of caution in arriving at assumptions. It is just as easy to burden a student with inflexible requirements, curiosity suppressing routine and interest neglecting preoccupations as it is to set the stage for a more natural and stimulating confrontation with a need for research capabilities. Perhaps easier.

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DISCONTINUITIES IN OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY IN THE MENTAL HEALTH RELATED PROFESSIONS

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DISCONTINUITIES IN OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY IN THE MENTAL HEALTH RELATED PROFESSIONS

At this point in time, practice in the mental health related professions is no longer restricted to those persons with advanced professional degrees. The professions within the realm of the mental health services have almost all developed new roles and new positions for practitioners at several levels, each level requiring different credentials.

Related to this change is the development and utilization of different systems for the analysis and the assignment of jobs to personnel within a particular service system. The more recent of these developments has included an increasingly extensive use of the systems approach to job assignment in the mental health fields and the growing use of functional job analysis. Although these new developments hold great promise for the emergence of more efficient service delivery systems, they also present some dilemmas for the personnel employed in the systems undergoing these changes.

Most agencies involved in the mental health related services are committed to policies that provide a potential for the staff to achieve both horizontal and vertical career mobility--which is otherwise known as the career ladder concept.

As a result of functional job analysis and other related practices, many new positions have been created at the lower end of the professional continuum. New positions, for example, that of psychiatric technician, have been created and filled with personnel who have been assured that these positions are not dead ends and that they can lead to occupational mobility. However, the major means of achieving occupational mobility in the mental health establishment is through the attainment of advanced educational credentials.

It would seem simple to accomodate these new personnel within the existing educational system and provide opportunities for them to achieve new credentials with a minimum of repetition. In fact, however, the existing educational systems are not sequentially arranged, and educational linkages are almost nonexistent at the lower professional levels where these new positions have been created.

For example, in the field of nursing there are at least three clearly identified practitioner levels--that of the nurse's aide, the licensed practical nurse, and the registered nurse. These three credentials are confined primarily to practitioners; they do not necessarily extend to the several other levels which exist in nursing, which are distinguished specifically by advanced educational degrees more than by a delineation of funtion. Together, the range of credentials in nursing includes at least six different levels of qualification, all seemingly interrelated and sequentially arranged. Upon close inspection, however it becomes apparent that no generally accepted relationship exists between all of the levels of nursing practice.

More specifically, a clear relationship does exist between educational degree programs such as the assoicate degree programs, the baccalaureate degree programs, the master's degree programs, and the doctoral programs. However, the relationship breaks down at the lower end of the continuum if a general relationship is sought between the three-year registered nurse programs and the baccalaureate programs on the one hand, and the associate level programs on the other. The relationship is also vaguely defined between the other programs--between the registered nurse and the licensed practical nurse programs, between the licensed practical nurse and the nurse's aide programs, and between the registered nurse and the nurse's aide programs. It appears that many persons qualified at one level, for example, as a nurse's aide or a licensed practical nurse, may not progress to the next level without practically starting over from the beginning in each of those programs. For example, it would be logical to assume that a person completing a three-year registered nurse program would be able to achieve a bachelor's degree in nursing with one additional year of work. This is not the case, however. Most persons completing a three-year registered nurse program receive no transfer credit at all toward the baccalaureate degree.

Another example involves students who have been enrolled in licensed practical nursing programs who seek to attain the RN credential, and find that they are not given any credit for their training in the LPN programs and must start over in many of the RN programs.

An examination of the social work profession shows a similar lack of continuity. In social work, as in nursing, it is true today that not every job requires an advanced degree from a graduate school of social work. Social work currently operates on at least five different practice levels, with credentials differentiated primarily by educational preparation. Preparation may be obtained in the doctoral degree programs, the master's degree programs, the baccalaureate programs, the associate degree and community college programs, and in continuing education programs. The changes in social work education that have taken place in the last several years, and the related development of programs at different levels, have been rapid and often piecemeal. In social work, as in nursing, no generally accepted relationships have developed between the various educational levels, with the exception of the advanced graduate programs which are arranged in sequential order. In the relationship between the master's degree programs and the doctoral programs, of course, the former is the prerequisite for the latter. A number of efforts. however, are currently underway to develop effective linkages at the other educational levels. All of these efforts to develop this continuum are directed to minimize overlap and provide a variety of exit and entry points for practitioners. The discontinuity between the various pre-professional and professional programs is much more apparent in social work than it is in nursing, as is evidenced by an examination of the requirements for admission to graduate professional programs in social work at the master's level. Currently, there is no clearly established relationship between undergraduate preparation in social work and admission to graduate professional programs at the master's level. No graduate school in the country requires an undergraduate major in social welfare as a primary qualification for admission to its social work program. All of these programs do require the baccalaureate degree, but do not specify an undergraduate major. Yet, there are a very large number of B.A.-level social work programs and students in the United States. What is the fate of those students who choose to pursue an advanced degree in social work at the graduate level? Many find that their graduate work is a reiteration of course work taken at the undergraduate level; almost none are given credit for their special undergraduate preparation.

These conditions can and are being rapidly changed. Meaningful linkages are currently being developed to assure vertical articulation between undergraduate and graduate education in social work. In our own program, at the University of Montana, we have achieved working links with several graduate schools which provide for entrance with advanced standing of our graduates into selected graduate programs.

What has been said for the development of vertical linkages in the mental health related professions is also true for the development of horizontal linkages. Persons entering the mental health related professions often experience difficulty in moving across disciplinary lines. It is generally expected that the further one progresses in a specialized discipline, the more one would lose in transferring across disciplinary lines. However, in some general fields of practice, such as mental health or corrections, a professional such as a psychologist or social worker does exactly the same thing, regardless of the setting in which he works. At the lower educational and professional levels, it would seem that a person might stand to lose less in such a crossover. This is not the case, however. Persons trained at the technician level in a field such as mental retardation cannot freely cross over to a primary mental health setting. It is often easier to cross academic boundaries than it is to cross occupational boundaries. Generally, students who have completed a specialized program at the community college level (for example, a program in corrections or alcohol and drug rehabilitation) find that they can often transfer almost all of their successful academic work for credit toward a more advanced degree--even though they move to another discipline within the same general mental health-social service constellation.

Thus, it might be said that vertical mobility is minimized because of constraints found in the academic world, while horizontal mobility seems to be more related to constraints within personnel systems. Logically, several major changes both in education and in agency personnel practice could be made which would reduce the apparent occupational discontinuities noted above and thus, achieve full horizontal and vertical mobility.

A major problem that requires change both in education and in agency practice is the development of a clear specification of the various elements of mental health practice at all levels, in all settings. No such overall specification of mental health practice currently exists. The elements of mental health practice vary according to theoretical dispositions, occupational vested interests, and political persuasions. To relate specific practices to those outcomes that are considered most desirable, a large scale analysis of jobs, within their related social systems, in conjunction with a well controlled research program is needed. What I am proposing is similar to a functional job analysis, with the added stipulation that good basic research on the impact of different practices on the targets of mental health activity is necessary. Through a systematic approach, it would be possible to separate those job functions that are necessary to achieve the goals of mental health programs from those functions which apparently serve other ends. Furthermore, it would then be possible to clearly specify the precise knowledge base upon which mental health actions are to be founded. The values of having a clearly specified knowledge base for mental health practice at all educational levels seem obvious. Ultimately, a generic mental health curriculum could result from such a program. A generic mental health curriculum is conceived of as a basic core curriculum common to all of the mental health disciplines. More advanced knowledge and skills could be added to it, including occupational specialization. This program would provide a solution to the problem of horizontal and vertical occupational mobility at the lower or entry levels of the profession. This system could be developed in accordance with present educational accrediting procedures, and thus would provide for easy credit transferal. A standard credential, such as a certificate in the basic mental health sciences, could be developed and related to personnel systems. This proposal is intended to ultimately benefit the consumer of mental health services in providing for a more even quality of service personnel; also there are many advantages for mental health personnel.

Another step in achieving full horizontal and vertical mobility, which should logically precede the step proposed above, is to redevelop the present occupational classification system in the mental health related fields. Currently, many positions are classified on the basis of two variables: the educational preparation required for entry into the position; and the field of practice within which the position occurs, such as aging, corrections, or public welfare. Naturally, the two are intricately related, since educational credentials are often expressly related to specialized fields of practice.

The present support system for higher education encourages tremendous fragmentation in occupational preparation. For example, a number of different specialists are being trained at the baccalaureate level and below. Other personnel are being trained for seemingly specialized occupations such as rehabilitation counseling or social work. Each of the above mentioned specialties are funded by separate governmental educational grants designed to aid in practitioner training. In fact, however, there is very little difference in what is required on the job from these diverse personnel. This is especially true for those trained at the B.A. level and below.

This generalization does not hold true, of course, for the more advanced specialized jobs. The point, however, is that a large number of supposedly different occupations are not different at all, in terms of what is done on the job; yet persons prepared to enter these occupations are educated in different programs, and are subject to different personnel practices when they go to work. They receive different salaries, are known by different job titles, and locked into job systems in which the structure is clearly unnecessary and perhaps dysfunctional.

This tendency toward the development of dysfunctional occupational specialization--especially in entry level positions in the mental health related professions--is likely to continue, because this system is maximally rewarded by grants and other reinforcers. Educational institutions would change their practices, however, in response to the manipulation of grant requirements by the granting agencies, and in response to changes in the personnel practices of these agencies.

What is needed, initially, is a much closer working relationship between the agencies and the educational institutions. The agencies are responsible, on the one hand, for specifying what needs to be done--for defining the goals to be achieved by their programs and the strategies needed to achieve them. The educational institutions, on the other hand, are responsible for training effective personnel to man those programs. Both the agencies and the institutions need to examine the system-wide implications of their staffing programs. What is especially needed is an honest effort to identify common elements in each subsystem, so that a coordinated effort for attaining systemic goals can be achieved.

Several additional changes in agency personnel policies are needed to help produce a more rational, coherent system that will serve clients better and also provide meaningful opportunities for employees.

One such change is the development of a common set of job designations and descriptions in the human helping services, especially at the entry level. As was pointed out earlier, there is tremendous overlap between similar jobs with different titles. The difference in titles seems to be related to the setting in which the work occurs, in contrast to the common elements of that work. For example, a person doing law enforcement investigative work utilizes the same principles and procedures regardless of the setting. Detectives working in a city police force, in a sheriff's department, or for a Federal law enforcement agency all utilize a common set of techniques, principles, and skills. The same is true for human helping service workers that are working in different settings. What is needed is a common designation that relates job requirements to specific knowledge and skills, beyond what can be learned in a few days of orientation. Agencies tend to overemphasize their uniqueness; however, many supposedly specialized settings, requiring certain knowledge, are really not so specialized that persons cannot learn what they need to know to operate effectively in a few days. Thus, the common designation of human helping service technician could apply to a range of jobs in a very large number of settings. For example, personnel who are responsible for care of institutional inmates in such diverse settings as nursing homes, institutions for the retarded, child caring institutions, and psychiatric facilities, could all share a common designation and could cross over between settings without undue and unrealistic constraints. The personnel could be recruited from a common base, also, thus giving a wider range of selection possibilities.

Another change that is badly needed is the development of a set of standardized entry criteria that are consistent between states for selected positions at the lower professional levels. Such basic criteria as specific educational credentials and/or the ability to score well on a standardized examination might be used. Examinations, if they are to be used, should realistically reflect the requirements of the job; this is in contrast to the many irrelevant exams used today. These are merely a few additional suggestions for change which I invite you to consider.

In fact, the goals of such seemingly diverse activities as mental retardation programs, vocational rehabilitation programs, and mental health programs are all basically the same. The educators and the practitioners are all committed to providing the training and services needed to effectively serve the individuals involved in their various programs.

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